

Public Personnel

Review

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Quarterly Journal of

The Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada

Public Personnel Review

*The Quarterly Journal of the Civil Service Assembly
of the United States and Canada*

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I Admire the Human Race

By ROGER WILLIAM RIIS

I ADMIRE the human race. I do, indeed. Everybody is busy running us down, these days, for the mess they say we have made here and there and everywhere. Pshaw! That's short-range stuff, a worm's-eye view of our world. Over the marching and abundant centuries, we haven't made any mess. Far from it!

We have done and are doing a better job than anyone has any right to expect. We're all right!

From the beginning, we found ourselves alone in a vast universe, and not only alone but the only living thing on this planet which could realize its loneliness. We realized it, gave it a good close look, and then turned our attention to making something practical and useful out of an unprecedented situation.

First of all, we found for ourselves a Light, a God, and we got a sense of direction, a goal to work toward. This was pretty clever of us, if you think of it carefully.

We proceeded to set up standards for our living together. Early in our experience we made the revolutionary discovery that gentleness and kindness were more practical than brute strength. No other species has ever found that out and used it as a model and practical code of conduct.

We have in actual fact no one we need answer to, beyond ourselves, and yet we observe our ideal standards in remarkable degree. We are honest, and trustworthy one with another so that it is the exception, it is news, when we commit a theft. We are decent 99 per cent of the time, when we could easily be vile.

With silence and mystery behind us and ahead of us, we make up gay little songs and whistle them, and our feet keep jig time to them. We look life and fate in the eye, and smile. I like that, and I admire the people who do it.

Alone among all living things, we have discovered Beauty, and we cherish it, and create it for eye and ear. Alone among living things, we have the power to look at our environment and criticize it and improve it.

Finding it necessary to live together by the millions, we created for ourselves governing systems covering vast geographical spaces. Now we actually have the thrilling and terrific idea of a world government, a global government to bring justice to white and black, to Eskimo and Afrikander, rich and poor, not because any tribe is powerful and can exact justice, but because we have conceived and created the ideal of justice and plan it for all men. This is great. This is not the act of a little animal, or a mean animal. This is possible only to a great animal. We think in global terms. We inhabit a star, and we know it.

Finding that we have to work to stay alive, we work with ability beyond imagining. Out of the earth we take food, and improve that food year by year; we take heat, and light, so that darkness which lay upon the face of the earth is dispelled by man-made light. We enjoy all the myriad products of our unparalleled ingenuity.

Every morning the necessity for the day's work faces us. And we go and do a day's work, with an over-all average effectiveness and perseverance that is amazing, considering many of the jobs.

Of a persistence, a daring and ingenuity impossible to surpass, we find ways to move easily under the water and through the air. Now we speculatively eye our neighboring planets. It should astound no one if man one day begins to move along these planets. How shall I not admire such a creature? Daunted by nothing, his horizons constantly recede, the territories of his possession and use expand and expand.

Whenever he comes to an impassable obstacle, an apparently final barrier, he goes to work at it and, in due time, surpasses it. If he has limits, I do not see where they are. I do not think he has limits. I think he is a child of the universe who inherits eternity. I think he is wonderful, I am his devoted partisan, and I am proud indeed to be one of him. *Permission to reprint granted by the Book-of-the-Month Club, Inc.*

What the "Little Hoover" Commissions Say about Personnel SIDNEY SPECTOR

IT HAS become apparent that modern, democratic government can function effectively only with a Public Service that is competent, vigorous, and imaginative. No matter how efficient the operational structure, the entire edifice may collapse under the weight of ineffective personnel organization, low morale, frustrating human relations, and autocratic supervision.

Impelled by the implications of this administrative axiom, the various agencies studying the organization and reorganization of their state governments have made personnel organization one of their crucial areas of investigation. Of the approximately twenty "little Hoover" commissions which have submitted reports in 1951, practically every one has made some recommendations for improvement of its personnel system.

By the end of 1950, twenty-eight states and two territories had established commissions on reorganization. At least four additional states already have been added to this total in 1951, and many more are considering such measures. This activity has thus evoked the most intensive examination of the effectiveness and responsiveness of state government in our recent history.

Reasons for this wide proliferation of agencies studying reorganization may be set forth as follows.

Following World War II there was a surging demand for a re-examination of our federal structure. The impressive series of reports by the Hoover Commission catalyzed similar studies in state governments largely as a favorably affected objective of political leadership.

A second and even more compelling reason has been the fiscal situation in the states. In the last generation, under the

impetus of vast technological and social changes, the citizens of this country have looked to their governments at all levels for increased services in practically every field. Expenditures for education, welfare, and highways have mounted in the states to formerly inconceivable heights. For example, in just the last decade, total state costs have soared from \$5.6 billion to \$12.9 billion in 1950, an increase of more than 130 percent.

The components of this tremendous expansion can be presented dramatically in dollars and cents. Comparable figures as shown by the U. S. Bureau of the Census depict the rise in school expenditures from \$1,067 million in 1942 to \$3,076 million in 1950—an increase of 188 percent in just the past nine years.

Similarly, the cost of highway maintenance and construction climbed from \$1,125 million in 1942 to \$2,581 million in 1950, and welfare from \$1,272 million to \$2,351 million. Comparable figures on total state employees are available only since 1946, but in just the last five years this total has increased from 726,000 to 1,033,000 (April, 1946 to April, 1950). During the same period, monthly payrolls have soared from \$110.7 million to \$212.2 million, a rise of 91.7 percent. The importance of state payrolls becomes more evident when they are visualized as constituting almost twenty percent of the record \$12.9 billion spent by the states in 1950.

Sources of revenue to meet these staggering expenditures constitute the most sensitive and difficult problem of state government today. For the states are determined, as far as possible, to assume their own responsibilities, raise their own revenues, and thus abate to some degree the accelerated movement whereby the centers of governmental decision move farther and farther from the localities.

To meet this crucial fiscal problem, many states have had to increase existing

• SIDNEY SPECTOR is a staff member of the Council of State Governments. He has served as a consultant to committees studying state reorganization in several states.

taxes and levy new ones for the coming fiscal period. Simultaneously, however, they are set upon re-examining the efficiency of their governmental operations. They are not reviewing in most cases the *need* for the services being rendered but they ask insistently: Are these needs being met with the utmost economy? Can we reduce duplication of effort, overlapping functions, and wasteful procedures?

Finally, whereas economy and efficiency were the prime etiological elements of reorganization a generation ago, a still more basic value joins with them in providing the stimulus today. The need for responsible and responsive government permeates our current climate of opinion and forms the framework for the democratic ideal in government. We therefore are asking ourselves whether the states are organized structurally and functionally to achieve responsible government and whether the public interest can be represented forcefully in the councils of our leaders.

These, then, are the immediate causal factors for the creation of "little Hoover" commissions in the states. There are, of course, possibly more important secular factors, such as the changing economic environment, depressions, wars, population shifts, differential age patterns, and altered value systems. But the above causes are the immediate ones. They indicate in large measure why reorganization has been so popular these past two years.

More than two-thirds of the agencies studying reorganization were established by specific legislative enactment. Legislatures have authorized the creation of special commissions in sixteen states, assigned the task to interim or continuing committees in eight, and charged the legislative council with the responsibility in five others. In four additional states, the governors acted independently to establish their own special commissions on reorganization.

With only a few exceptions, the commissions or committees include legislative membership, in some cases legislators exclusively. There is a general feeling that to be successful such agencies preferably should have legislative representation and that, where this is not the case, citizen

members should represent all major segments of the community.

The number of members of the various commissions ranges from about seven to as many as 600, and the life of the commissions from a few months to permanent status. In the main, memberships average about ten to fifteen people, but large advisory and consultative bodies are added. Funds available also extend through a wide range, from zero to \$100,000 or \$125,000.

The scope of the studies varies similarly. Some are comprehensive analyses of all three branches of state government; others, detailed studies of specific operating procedures. Some of the reports will be largely educative in nature, setting forth the objectives of efficient administration for years to come. Others aim at such practical suggestions as may be put into effect by immediate executive or legislative direction.

The actual workings of the commissions have followed a general pattern. In most cases it has been found necessary to secure the assistance of a small, expert staff to perform the basic research and initial drafting of reports. In addition, many commissions have employed expert consultants to investigate specialized functions. A few states adopted the task force method, but most of them found this approach either too expensive or unnecessary.

The preliminary reports prepared by the expert staffs are reviewed by the full commissions, which then arrive at policy decisions. In some states, periodic reports and recommendations have been made public and released for legislative examination. In most, no final recommendations have emerged until the entire report was ready for submission.

Brief summaries of the personnel recommendations of the "little Hoover" commissions follow. In reading them, it is important to keep one fairly obvious point in mind. Systems of personnel organization vary significantly from state to state, and the recommendations inevitably are tailored to suit the indigenous traditions and patterns of each. Thus it is difficult to present comparable data for all states, leading

to generalizations of universal validity. However, the state by state summaries do provide ground for a series of limited generalizations.

Alabama

THE REORGANIZATION report of the Legislative Reference Service made no comprehensive recommendations for reorganizing the personnel system. At present there is a three-member Personnel Board, appointed by the Governor with the advice and consent of the Senate. The Board appoints the Personnel Director, who serves at its pleasure.

Board members serve for six years, and under the present system each governor has the opportunity to appoint two of its members. The Legislative Reference Service suggested that the Governor appoint members for twelve-year terms, with the advice and consent of the Senate. This, it felt, would promote more effective operation of the merit system by making the Personnel Board independent of political control.

Arizona

IN THE staff report to the Arizona Special Legislative Committee on State Operations, it was proposed that a Department of Personnel be created, with responsibility for the central administration of the state personnel system. It would include such functions as classification and pay plans, eligibility requirements, formulation and prescription with respect to employee problems.

The proposed statewide department would be headed by a qualified Commissioner of Personnel, appointed by the Governor from a list of eligibles submitted by a Board of Personnel after open, competitive examination. A three-member advisory Board of Personnel would be attached to the Personnel Department.

However, the Special Legislative Committee, in its first report, recommended against the immediate creation of a personnel department on the grounds that the other consolidation and reorganization proposals in the plan "... will provide the economic advantages within the separate proposed departments to a sufficient extent."

Arkansas

AS PART of its program for the 1951 Legislative Session, the "little Hoover" Commission proposed the creation of a State Personnel Office to be headed by a Director of Personnel appointed by a Personnel Board of five members. The Personnel Office would have the following functions:

1. Establish and operate for the departments a modern and comprehensive personnel system governing recruitment, selection, placement, promotion, transfer, discipline, and termination.

2. Establish a system of job classification and fill every job with a competent employee through practical tests of ability and qualification.

3. Develop, in conjunction with the federal security program, an employee retirement system.

4. Institute good working conditions and provide incentives for superior accomplishment.

The operations of the Personnel Office would extend to all employees except department heads, Governor's staff, certain professional persons, and specified principal assistants. The bill was introduced in 1951 but did not pass.

California

IN ITS first partial report, the Assembly Interim Committee on Governmental Reorganization commended the State Personnel Board for fully or partially giving effect to over 100 out of 157 recommendations made in a report two years ago by the Assembly Interim Committee on Governmental Efficiency. The Committee recommended that seven of the original recommendations should be modified and the balance should now be adopted.

The Committee reaffirmed the principle that the Governor must have direct responsibility and authority in the personnel field. In any general reorganization of the state government, the personnel agency should be situated in close relationship to all other staff and service activities and close to the Chief Executive. The "theory of a completely independent personnel agency should be abandoned."

The Committee further recommended the consolidation of the classification and pay divisions; the delegation of more authority by the State Personnel Board to its branch offices; increased delegation of personnel authority to the operating departments; and the creation of a personnel council for better coordination of central and departmental personnel operations.

Its final point on internal organization called for a personnel agency with all administrative authority centered in a professional administrator, with a board limited to rule-making, appeal, and advisory functions. For immediate purposes the relative authority of the Personnel Board and the Executive Officer should be clarified.

Connecticut

THE Commission on State Government Organization recommended the creation of a new and separate central personnel agency reporting directly to the Governor and the installation of a professional personnel unit within each department. Thus, there would be an Office of Personnel Service, headed by a Commissioner reporting to the Governor and serving at his discretion. The Personnel Office should put its emphasis on positive recruitment, effect a complete review of existing position classifications, and improve employee relations.

The Commission recommended that the present Advisory Personnel Committee be replaced by a Citizens Advisory Committee of broadly representative men and women experienced in labor relations or civil service administration to make investigations and advise the Commissioner. Finally, the Office of Personnel Service should be provided with the staff necessary to carry out effective personnel policies.

Delaware

THE Delaware Commission on Reorganization of State Government made a unique proposal. It recommended that the Secretary of State, as the only appointive officer established by the constitution and the only administrative officer in line of succession to the Governor and serving at the Governor's pleasure, should supervise and

coordinate on behalf of the Governor all of the staff and central service activities of state government, including personnel administration.

It recommended the organization of a Department of Administrative Services, headed by a Director appointed by the Governor with Senate confirmation, but working generally under the guidance of the Secretary of State. An advisory Personnel Board would be attached to the Department.

The Department of Administrative Services would be concerned, among other staff functions, with all questions relating to personnel and would furnish such central personnel services as might be provided for.

Florida

A PROPOSED reorganization act of 1951 would place within the executive department, under the direction of the Governor, the functions of Director of Personnel to administer a state civil service system, as might be provided by law. The Director would be appointed by and serve at the pleasure of the Governor.

The Director would administer: (1) such civil service and merit system laws as may be enacted; (2) all functions now performed by the merit system of the Welfare Board and the Industrial Commission, the Merit Council, and the Board of Examiners of the Parole Commission. These agencies would be abolished.

Illinois

ILLINOIS has had a civil service law since 1905. The present basic personnel agency is the Civil Service Commission and the Merit System extends to about half the state's employees. The Commission to Study State Government did not recommend blanket extension of the civil service law for all state personnel, but proposed that present civil service laws be altered to authorize continuous recruiting and simplified examination techniques. It recommended that the Civil Service Commission have power to certify whatever number of eligibles it deemed appropriate, subject to the restriction that appointments be made only from among the three high-

est actually available. It also should be given authority to conduct an in-service training program and to develop suggested standards for guiding operating agencies on such matters as hours of work, sick leave, overtime credits, and vacation policies. The present Merit System Council should be taken over by the Civil Service Commission.

Iowa

THE Iowa State Senate passed a bill, similar to one recommended by the Governmental Reorganization Commission, creating a State Personnel Division in the Office of the Comptroller. Under direction of the Executive Council and the Comptroller (appointed by the Governor and serving at his discretion), it would prescribe rules for hiring, salaries, promotions, transfers within departments, and duties of the various position classifications.

The Personnel Director would be named by the Comptroller and would have charge of state employees other than those under the Supreme Court, Attorney General, and certain specified departments. It appears that the present Joint Federal and State Merit System may remain untouched.

Kansas

THE Commission on State Administrative Organization discovered duplication of effort and waste of money in the existence of both a Department of Civil Service and a Joint Merit System Council. It appeared to the Commission that the Merit System Council could be absorbed in the state Civil Service System at a substantial savings and with elimination of the confusion that results when both systems operate in the same office—as is true, also, of the State Board of Public Health and the State Department of Social Welfare.

Michigan

IN THE staff report on personnel administration to the Michigan Joint Legislative Committee on Reorganization of State Government it was suggested that the state's personnel program be administered by a single, qualified individual responsible to the Chief Executive and selected on a competitive basis. A commission or per-

sonnel board should be created with appellate and investigatory functions.

In addition, the report recommended establishing a personnel council of representatives from the office of the Chief Executive, the operating departments, and the personnel agency. It proposed an increase in the appointment authority of the Chief Executive and operating officials, with more exempt positions at the top level. The report also set forth a number of improvements with regard to specific personnel policies, including increased decentralization, veterans' preference, pay rates, and research programs.

In his comments on the staff report, the Director of the Committee on Reorganization stated that it did not discuss proper location of the central personnel agency. He asserted:

The only logical location for a central service personnel agency as a part of the management function is as a division in the department of administration . . . this division and its director would be responsible for recruitment, examination, position classification, training and processing, promotions, demotions, and discharges—all of which are technical administrative actions.

The Director recommended that:

Compensation schedules for all positions in the classified service be determined by the Legislature upon the recommendation of the governor—he, in turn, relying upon the joint recommendation of his budget officer and personnel director.

Minnesota

THE Minnesota Efficiency in Government Commission found as the major defect in the present civil service law the so-called "closed back door," which places upon the department head the burden of proof in discharging an employee. It recommended that department heads be empowered to discharge civil service employees for cause, after notice and hearing by the appointing authority, but with the right of appeal to the Civil Service Board on political, racial, or religious grounds. Discharges by administrative action and the consequent appellate decisions by the Civil Service Board should not be subject to review by the courts.

The Commission recommended that the Director of the Department of Civil Service be appointed by the Governor instead of by the Civil Service Board. However, he should be selected from a list of three names prepared by the Civil Service Board. The Department of Civil Service should be retained as an operating department with a policy-making board, but with a Director having full responsibility for administration of the civil service program. The Director also should be included under civil service.

The Commission set forth a list of recommendations governing more specific personnel matters, such as the need for conferences among department heads, compensation, retirement, unemployment insurance, and veterans' preference. With respect to the latter, it recommended that no candidate should have preference unless he first earned a passing grade.

Mississippi

THE Mississippi Legislative Fact-Finding Committee on Reorganization of State Government recommended the creation of a Bureau of General Administration directed by a Comptroller appointed by the Governor. The Bureau would include a Division of Personnel responsible for the formulation and execution of service-wide personnel policies. It would assist agency heads in recruiting qualified personnel, establishing a fair compensation plan, classifying positions and testing qualifications of job applicants. The Committee recommended a state-wide personnel system.

Nebraska

THE Committee on the Organization and Functions of State Government of the Nebraska Legislative Council found that Nebraska had no single integrated or centralized system for the selection, training, or supervision of its employees. Instead, there are several "systems" wholly independent of each other and some that are overlapping. The Committee further found that at present the State Tax Commissioner may be regarded as the Governor's chief personnel officer.

In its conclusions the Committee recom-

mended creation of a code department, to be called the Department of Administration, which would perform all duties of the Tax Commissioner relating to the supervision of administrative personnel. Also recommended was enactment of OASI enabling legislation and uniform policies regarding work week and sick leave regulations.

Nevada

IN THE report of the Legislative Counsel Bureau to the 1951 session of the Legislature, a program for achieving a more effective personnel administration was included. The Legislative Counsel Bureau felt that great strides can be made in raising morale "by the creation of a uniform job and classification system under the guidance of a qualified director of personnel."

It therefore recommended that an adequate and comprehensive personnel system be established with provision for uniform job and salary classifications and for the selection of employees on the basis of merit. The proposed general merit system would absorb the present merit systems now in operation for the three departments dependent wholly or partially upon federal funds.

The director of personnel would be in the classified service and would be selected by competitive examination under the provisions of the personnel system.

New Hampshire

THE Report of the New Hampshire Reorganization Commission proposed a new Department of Administration and Control, within which would be Divisions of Budget, Accounts and Control, Purchase and Property, and Personnel. The Personnel Division would be headed by a Director and would include a Personnel Board, both appointed by the Governor and Council.

The proposed Division would combine the present functions of three personnel agencies. It would prepare and maintain a job classification and pay plan; recruit, test, and certify eligibles; maintain personnel records; formulate and prescribe per-

sonnel regulations; and approve the appointment of all subordinate employees.

Ohio

THE COMMITTEE on State Government issued this year a report on "Organization Set-Up for Personnel Administration." It stated that the present organization is "outmoded and in conflict with sound principles of management."

The Committee recommended that the central personnel agency, namely the Civil Service Commission, consist of three members appointed by the Governor and confirmed by the Senate, but serving at "the pleasure of the Governor." The Chairman of the commission should be designated by the Governor and he would be responsible for the day-to-day administrative functions of the commission.

A qualified Executive Director should be appointed by the commission after an open, competitive examination. He would be the top career officer of the commission and would be subject to the administrative direction of the chairman.

The committee recommended that the governor designate agencies which should have full-time personnel directors; other agencies should designate specific officials to handle personnel matters. Together, these personnel officers would constitute a Council of Personnel Administration and meet regularly.

The classified service should include all but a very small percentage of the total number of state positions. Policy-making positions should be carefully distinguished from purely administrative jobs.

South Carolina

THE LEGISLATURE in 1950 passed Reorganization Plan No. 2, as proposed by the State Reorganization Commission, creating a State Budget and Control Board. Under this were consolidated eight agencies, and these were organized into three divisions—Finance, Purchasing and Property, and Personnel Administration.

The Division of Personnel Administration is headed by a Director who appoints his staff with the approval of the Budget and Control Board. Its work will embrace

the functions of the Retirement Board and the administration of all laws relating to personnel.

Territory of Hawaii

THE Sub-Committee on Governmental Efficiency recommended creation of a Department of Civil Service under the administrative direction of a Personnel Director and including a commission of three members.

The Personnel Director would be appointed by the Governor as head of the Department of Civil Service. He should be thoroughly qualified in personnel administration and be selected after an examination held by the Commission. The Governor shall select one of the persons standing among the highest five.

The classified service would extend to all positions except the Governor's office, department heads, elective officials, and certain others. As department head, the Director would direct and supervise all administrative and technical activities. He would have the specific duties of establishing a job classification system, a pay plan, and in-service training programs, and he would exercise leadership in developing a positive personnel administration.

Territory of Puerto Rico

THE Commission for Reorganization stated that ultimate responsibility rests upon the Governor for attracting and holding a high-grade government service. It therefore recommended the transfer of the Office of Personnel to the Office of the Governor. The Personnel Director should be made responsible for formulating policies to extend the merit plan throughout the executive branch. The Commission further recommended that the administration of five retirement systems be made a responsibility of the Personnel Office.

Procedure for suspension and dismissal of employees, it was held, should be modified by limiting judicial review and by providing a more informal hearing procedure before the Personnel Board. New and vigorous efforts should be made to develop pre-service and in-service training of public employees through the University of Puerto Rico.

A Summary of Trends

As is common in the laboratory of the states, no single pattern of personnel organization has evolved from these studies. However, a number of important trends have become fairly prominent. Greater effort is being made to integrate the personnel agency with the rest of the administration, and particularly with the office of the governor. One of the most spectacular trends of the past two years has been the increasing recourse to an over-all Department of Administration to operate the housekeeping functions of state government and to remove from the governor many burdensome administrative matters. As noted above, a significant number of states are including divisions of personnel within these proposed departments of administration or similar agencies.

A trend appears for achieving single-headed administration of the personnel agency generally through a personnel director. However, in most cases where single-headed personnel departments are recommended, it is proposed also that personnel boards be created within the department to advise and assist the director and to act as the appeals body in disciplinary cases. It also appears that the recommendations of the "little Hoover" com-

missions, if accepted, would limit the role of judicial review with respect to personnel board decisions.

The recommendations would expand steadily the use of the merit system among the greater portion of state employees, ordinarily exempting elective officials, top policy positions, and certain other specified employees.

With regard to staffing the personnel agency, the commissions are recommending the appointment, usually by the governor, of a professionally qualified personnel officer and adequate staffing by competent, professional personnel assistants.

In addition, the reports emphasize that positive, imaginative steps must be taken by personnel agencies in recruiting personnel, in on-the-job training, and in assisting operating departments with personnel problems. Position classification, pay schedules, and retirement systems are achieving wide acceptance as a continuing responsibility of the personnel agency.

Finally, it appears that in those states where strong central personnel departments have been recommended, it is proposed to decentralize to the operating departments a considerable share of the merit system administration.

Watch Your Aim

CORRUPTION in government makes most people boiling mad, and there certainly has been plenty in recent months to get mad about—buyable cops and crooked sheriffs and mysteriously well-off figures connected with the federal government.

It is of course proper to get sore at crime and graft, but aim your anger at the right targets. If some city or county or federal employee is dishonorable, he ought to be dishonored. But let us not dishonor ALL government people for the sins of the very few, unless we are ready to dishonor government itself—which is us.—*Changing Times*, The Kiplinger Magazine, Washington, D. C., June, 1951.

The Chinese Have Known This for Years

THE "know-how" is very important in any job or profession, but timing—the "know-when"—is an additional factor that only the older worker contributes.

The "How" of Hiring the Handicapped DR. VERNE K. HARVEY

STORIES about the effective utilization of people with serious permanent physical impairments in suitable lines of endeavor can be written and given publicity with little difficulty. It is also quite easy to place a combat-wounded, disabled veteran with a dramatic history in an unusual or unique position which he can fill satisfactorily in spite of his handicaps. It is a different matter, however, to administer a program which calls for the continuing placement, in a large number and variety of jobs, of physically handicapped people who are, however, fully qualified so far as education and experience are concerned. This is particularly true when they are competing for jobs for which they cannot be considered until their names are reached on lists of eligibles. To do this in conformity with several laws and numerous regulations, and at the same time produce results which satisfy the conscience and are not too far short of the goal set, calls for ingenuity, perseverance, and patience; plus, of course, a sufficient amount of know-how.

Federal Rules Regarding Employment of the Handicapped

THE Civil Service Commission's program for the utilization of the physically handicapped is carried on under laws and Executive orders. Under them, the Commission has wide latitude to issue rules and regulations.

The principal authorities under which the program operates are:

1. A law, passed in 1944, giving special privileges to handicapped veterans. It provides that physical requirements for any position can be waived for veterans if they can perform the job's duties efficiently.

2. A law, passed in 1948, providing that no person shall be discriminated against in personnel transactions because of a physical hand-

icap if, in the opinion of the Civil Service Commission, he can efficiently perform the duties of the position involved without hazard to himself or to others.

Because of these two laws, one dealing with veterans alone, one of the first matters to be determined in aiding a handicapped individual is whether or not he is a veteran.

Before the 1948 law was passed, a method of facilitating placements of physically handicapped individuals had been evolved which later became established policy. The Commission held that satisfactory actual performance of the duties of a position was fully as good proof of physical suitability as the meeting of specific physical standards set up for that position. This type of consideration was termed "acceptance of demonstrated performance in lieu of meeting published physical standards." It could not be used in all cases, of course, since the performance must have been in a similar federal job. Although it could not be used in testing the physical fitness of those who had never worked for the government, it was most helpful after World War II in establishing criteria for the evaluation of physical condition in connection with war-service employees who were attempting to secure permanent civil service status.

Upon the passage of the 1948 law, the Commission had a foundation of facts and the blueprint of machinery by which to carry out even more fully its responsibility to see that the handicapped were not discriminated against unfairly in cases where all other things were equal and the real or apparent discrimination was solely on the basis of a serious physical handicap which had not heretofore prevented safe and efficient service in the same or a similar position by the specific person under consideration.

It is still to a large extent on the basis of this law that the Commission continues

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to fortify its program for the fullest appropriate use of handicapped citizens in all phases of the government's work, but particularly in its industrial activities. It is equally applicable to veterans and non-veterans.

Defining "Handicap" for Job Purposes

OF THE many standards which can be used to classify bodily impairments, the Commission holds that only material or serious handicaps should receive consideration in its program. If all imperfections and relatively insignificant anatomical and functional deficiencies were taken into account, it would be necessary to deal with a much larger group of people, many of whose "handicaps" offer no serious problem in connection with securing any type of position for which they possess the necessary general qualifications. The type of physical handicap which the Commission recognizes as such may be described as being of a nature which would ordinarily prove a serious hindrance to a person seeking either federal employment or a suitable position in private industry. On this basis handicapped people may be grouped roughly as:

1. Persons who have amputations or orthopedic deformities of one or more major members.
2. The hard of hearing and the deaf.
3. The blind, the industrially blind, and those blind in one eye.
4. Persons with serious impairments of the visual functions of color and depth perception.
5. Persons with arrested pulmonary tuberculosis.
6. Persons with compensated heart disease.

In addition to the stipulation that the disabilities be material in degree, the Commission requires that they be static (as distinguished from active or progressive disorders) and permanent in nature, that is they cannot be fully corrected by medical or surgical measures. Disabilities which are fluctuating or recurrent, or which should ordinarily respond to appropriate treatment, are excluded from consideration.

In 1940, the Civil Service Commission's newly organized and unified Medical Division, acting as one of that agency's information-gathering and planning arms,

pointed out that the rapidly diminishing supply of government civilian industrial workers, which was resulting from heavy induction of able-bodied men into the armed services could, to a considerable extent, be compensated for through use of the nation's physically handicapped—a reservoir of manpower which had by no means been tapped to the extent possible.

A sizable proportion of these people were already qualified for government work by education and training. In a good many instances, they also had experience in identical lines of work. There were, however, major factors which prevented their entering the government's plants and offices in any great numbers:

1. The physical standards then in effect for most positions required a high degree of physical perfection. Except for a few positions which must be filled by active, vigorous men with all faculties intact, physical standards were usually set without any real connection with the abilities which were basically essential to safe and satisfactory performance as authenticated by a careful job analysis.
2. The second factor was prejudice—actually one of the reasons behind the first factor. It took various forms. People didn't like to see the physically handicapped around. They had a bad effect on morale. They couldn't produce as well. And what was more often the story heard, they were more prone to illnesses and injuries which could readily lead to aggravation of their pre-existing disabilities.

Modification of Physical Standards for Federal Jobs

THE U. S. Civil Service Commission's first task was to find out just what it did take to perform the duties of various jobs, particularly those of an industrial or mechanical nature. The next task was to get as many handicapped persons placed in as many appropriate positions as possible. Following this, if the Commission was to keep on placing and using them, it became important to study their actual performance with a view to answering these questions: Do they do as much work as able-bodied workers? Do they do it acceptably? What is their sick leave record? How often and for what reasons do they change jobs? What is their record as to accidents and time-lost injuries that increased their disabilities?

The year 1941 was an opportune time for such an effort. During periods when the government's activities are expanding, and to an even greater degree when the demand for workers is at a peak, a cross section of federal activities will show much more diversification with respect to jobs. The number of types of duties associated with each position decreases. It naturally follows that with fewer kinds of activities involved in each position, there is less tendency for all of a man's capacities or functions to be required to do the job efficiently and safely.

The Commission appointed a full-time medical officer in each of its fourteen regional offices. Although their job descriptions called for additional duties, mainly the other phases of industrial, occupational, or administrative medicine involved in the Commission's activities, their first big project was the actual on-the-job analysis and recording of the physical demands of positions, chiefly those in the field industrial activities of the federal government.

The data secured were immediately used in two ways: First, the agency or establishment in which a particular group of surveys or studies had been conducted was advised of the Commission's finding. Whenever possible, the results were summarized in the form of a readily understandable manual which was presented to the agency officials for their future guidance. Second, the findings from all parts of the country were combined into a comprehensive manual or guide for the information and general use of both government and private industry in connection with their efforts to utilize the handicapped.

While the surveys were being made, the Commission altered the physical standards of positions whose previous physical standards had been unrealistically high. They were altered in gradually increasing numbers, usually with the agreement of the agency concerned but sometimes rather reluctantly on its part. As a result, the standards began to reflect only the actual basic or minimal physical demands of the position under consideration. This automatically opened the first door to government employment for many persons with per-

manent impairments who had heretofore been prevented by the traditionally high physical requirements from receiving even preliminary consideration of their applications for federal employment.

Assessment of Job Performance of Handicapped Workers

WHEN the program had been in operation for two years, the Commission began a survey of the results of placements. In addition to furnishing information about the program as a whole, the survey was to determine how well a physically handicapped person, once he was placed in an appropriate position, could perform on the job.

The performance records of able-bodied workers in a number of federal industrial establishments were compared with the records of physically handicapped workers doing the same work. The number and variety of case samples used and the methods employed in selecting and compiling them were in accordance with objective criteria set up by statistical experts.

The results of the study were thoroughly conclusive in establishing that:

1. Handicapped workers are as good as or better than able-bodied workers in both quality and quantity of work produced.
2. They do not change jobs as frequently—either voluntarily or as a result of changes initiated by management.
3. They have fewer lost-time accidents.
4. Their records compare favorably with respect to absenteeism with those of able-bodied workers in comparable positions.

The results of the study were published in the *Journal of the American Medical Association* in April, 1945.

Medical Examinations Revised

IN FURTHERANCE of the program, the form for recording the results of medical examinations was studied and revised. Forms for recording physical findings brought out by medical examinations conducted before or at the time of entrance on duty had long been in use in the federal government. However, they had nearly always been devised for the purpose of discovering and recording conditions which would disqualify for appointment

rather than to furnishing a means for estimating potentialities. What was needed was a form which would allow a quick appraisal of the individual's physical capacities and facilitate a determination of the type of work he could perform efficiently without undue hazard to himself or others. The resulting form (Standard Form 78) is now in use for the majority of civilian positions in the classified service which do not require physical fitness of extraordinary degree or capability of a special type.

The form contains a section termed the "Health Qualification Placement Record." It lists various physical capacities or functions as well as a few factors with emotional or personality implications. Spaces are provided for the appointing officer or prospective employer to check the factors which are essential to the job to which it is proposed to appoint the individual concerned. The employing agency also includes a brief but comprehensive statement of duties which should constitute an adequate explanation of the type of activities which will be required. The examining physician is instructed to indicate in one of three columns the individual's ability to perform these special acts or functions on the basis of full, partial, or negative capacity.

One of the biggest steps toward getting the right employee in the right job (as far as physical requirements are concerned) is accomplished when due attention is paid to this form by the appointing officer, and the doctor is careful and conscientious in filling it out.

Postwar Placement Program

WITH the end of hostilities, the Commission's examining and placement procedures reverted to a more normal type of activity. There was, of course, no longer any need for intensive recruiting. In fact, the main issue was the orderly and equitable reduction of personnel in practically all agencies.

At this point, the Commission began to make much wider and more effective use of its experience in placing the handicapped. Announcements of examinations contain statements of what will be required of applicants in the way of physical capacity. They are worded to empha-

size the physical abilities necessary to perform the duties of the particular position, rather than the conditions which will disqualify for appointment. When the duties of the position under consideration can be performed by persons with certain handicaps, the announcement states specifically that applications from persons with those particular handicaps will be accepted.

At first, separate physical ability statements were prepared for each examination. Soon, however, it became obvious that the statements fell into definite patterns. At the present time, the Commission uses sixteen statements that, with a number of standard additions and variations to take care of the necessary elasticity, provide adequate coverage for positions in federal industrial establishments.

Modifications in Examining Techniques

ONE difficulty which has been encountered in the program for placement of the physically handicapped is that of giving written examinations to persons with serious physical handicaps which impair the use of the eyes or ears, or the use of the hands for writing.

In an examination which contains full written instructions, where it is necessary for the person conducting the examination to give few or no verbal instructions, a person with total loss of hearing could take the examination with a group of people who have normal hearing without too much disadvantage to himself.

It is different, however, with people with serious deficiencies of eyesight, or with a degree or type of deafness which cannot be corrected by a hearing aid, or who have disabilities of the upper extremities which interfere with satisfactory written responses to questions or other examining devices which entail use of the hands.

The Commission has tried many methods of administering examinations to people with these handicaps and there are preventing circumstances or drawbacks connected with practically every one as it pertains to a particular type of examination. The methods used have included:

1. Assigning a reader for the blind.
2. Providing a person skilled in sign language to transmit oral questions or instructions to the deaf.

3. Transmitting examination material to the blind by use of a voice transcribing machine.

4. Using examination papers with spaces larger than usual for the recording of answers by persons whose physical condition prevents them from writing figures or letters sufficiently small to fit into the size of answer spaces usually provided.

The Commission believes that some standard procedures should be provided which are fair tests of the knowledge, skills, and aptitudes of people who, though fully capable of carrying out the duties of the positions, are prevented by their physical handicaps from following normal examination procedures. It is necessary, however, to guard against the charge that, in altering the examining method so that the handicapped person can compete, the Commission has discriminated in his favor by making it easier for him than for the other competitors. Another competitor sometimes says, particularly one who has failed the examination, "Well, if you had examined me in the same way as you did that one-armed deaf man, I know I would have made a passing grade."

That charge is a serious one, particularly if it should be made by a veteran who has a material service-connected disability, but of such a nature that it does not hamper the testing of his qualifications by ordinary methods. When account is taken of the traditional impartiality associated with the administration of the Civil Service Act as well as adherence to the slogan, "The best shall serve the state," there cannot fail to be an appreciation of the difficulties encountered when anyone is admitted to the government service through a channel which differs even slightly from that used by the majority of the aspirants for federal jobs.

Special devices are employed from time to time on an experimental basis. Whether they are discarded or continued in use is governed by their proved effectiveness as testing tools and their compatibility with the principle of complete impartiality. A typical example, mentioned before, is the examination paper with blown-up spaces for the recording of answers to multiple-choice questions, which can be used by persons with disabilities of the spastic paralysis type and by persons with condi-

tions of the hands or central nervous system which render small writing or precise motions a difficult matter.

Extension of Job Possibilities for the Handicapped

Two current activities are of interest in connection with the program for the placement of the physically handicapped: (1) A study of additional positions, and (2) the announcement of two examinations in which the blind can compete.

The Commission's medical officers in its regional offices have begun an analysis of more than one thousand additional positions. They are mainly in federal industrial activities, particularly aircraft activities, in which there are critical shortages. Many of the positions have been studied previously, but since equipment and procedures have changed, it again becomes necessary to study the minimal physical capacities necessary to fill the jobs efficiently and safely.

As soon as time and resources permit, the new data obtained will be combined with that already available which still has significance, to form the basis for a revision of the Commission's publication "A Guide for the Placement of the Physically Impaired."

The two examinations are for Dictating Machine Transcriber and Shorthand Reporter. In the Dictating Machine Operator examination, which was for the blind only, dictating machine records were employed and examiners were available to read the questions and record the competitors' answers. In the Shorthand Reporter examination, the feature of the testing which was of interest to the handicapped was the provision for using a machine which noiselessly recorded the voice of the person being examined, provided he desired to use such an apparatus. This opened the way for participation of blind applicants.

Since the very beginning of the program, placements of the handicapped in the federal service have been reported in some form. Until relatively recently, however, the reports included only placements in the field service, and the degree of refinement of the data secured has varied considerably. A new plan under consideration calls for systematic continuous reporting

which will give an accurate appraisal of the physically handicapped population in the federal service at regular intervals.

The Commission also plans to make another comparative performance study of physically impaired workers and able-bodied workers. It will be a more extensive study than the one conducted in 1945. It is hoped that the results will be useful in the Commission's continuing efforts to promote employer acceptance of physically handicapped workers in government as well as in private industry.

The Commission is also active in the placement of persons with so-called nervous disabilities, but most of this work is necessarily on an individual basis. Conditions of the nervous system, as referred to here, naturally do not include the purely organic or structural nervous deficiencies whose manifestations are chiefly somatic, for example, mechanical difficulty with the extremities such as are exhibited by the "spastics." Persons with these deficiencies offer very few more placement problems than do those whose disabilities are entirely orthopedic or of external origin.

The largest number of problems of the nervous or "mental" type are concerned with veterans who have, or whose records indicate that they have had one of the neuroses commonly associated with combat service—or the even more serious functional disabilities of the nervous system. The action taken in connection with any individual case has to be governed by the type of disability and its prognosis, the demands of the position with respect to such factors as emotional stability and the ability to withstand tension-producing situations.

The Commission does not rehabilitate the handicapped. Other agencies have been officially charged with this responsibility and are equipped to do the job. The Commission makes the fullest possible use of their end product. There is full cooperation with the rehabilitating agencies—both federal and state. The Commission refers physically handicapped persons to these agencies, and, in turn, devotes time and effort to testing the fitness of their "graduates" for federal jobs and telling federal appointing officers of what can be accomplished by capable people whose

handicaps have been corrected or lessened to the fullest extent possible by rehabilitation.

In Summary

GENERALLY speaking, jobs cannot be tailored or altered by the Commission so that they will be especially appropriate for people with certain types of handicaps. The agencies have the government's work to do and the responsibility of hiring the people who will perform the necessary tasks efficiently. In its role as central personnel agency, the Commission has the duty to see that agencies hire the best qualified people in an equitable manner and without discrimination. Criteria relative to discrimination are spelled out plainly; physical condition is one of them. We may suggest changes in a few instances, but in the main it is the agency which must determine the duties of any position.

The Commission does not advocate overloading the government with handicapped people nor making government jobs a safe harbor for those who cannot hold their own in competitive private enterprise. For that reason, it has never advocated a definite percentage of handicapped employees as representing either a minimum or maximum of the number of these people which should be employed by the government. At times when it is necessary to reduce the number of federal employees, it cannot be expected that the physically handicapped will be retained in their positions any longer than able-bodied workers with equal job retention rights based on factors other than physical condition.

The Commission views its job, in so far as utilization of the handicapped is concerned, as consisting of finding out the physical demands of federal jobs, finding out what people with certain handicaps can and cannot do, and passing this information on to appointing officers in a persuasive fashion. It tries to see that the handicapped are placed in positions which they can perform efficiently and without undue hazard to themselves or others, and makes sure that physical condition is not used as the basis of unfair discrimination in connection with any phase of federal employment under the jurisdiction of the Civil Service Commission.

Management Improvement in the Canadian Civil Service

• GEORGE T. JACKSON

AS GOVERNMENTS grow in size and complexity there is an ever increasing need for the systematic examination of the organization, methods, forms, and processes of government departments. This fact has been recognized in Canada by the creation of an Organization and Methods Division within the Civil Service Commission.

The Division was established in 1947 with the approval of the Federal Cabinet which desired that every effort be made to realize greater economy and efficiency, and at the instance of the Commission itself which recognized the need for such an organization if the civil service was to be reorganized on a sound peacetime basis following its rapid wartime growth.

Accomplishments of Canada's O. & M. Program

IN THE first two years of its existence the Division was mainly concerned with getting a good start and plotting its subsequent course. Since then, however, it has grown rapidly. The staff which numbered only seven on January 1, 1949, is now twenty-eight, and includes seventeen officers who have had considerable experience in industrial management. Others will be added from time to time to meet the growing demands on its services. The Division also has a small staff engaged in form design and in the preparation of charts, including flow charts and floor layouts.

What has it accomplished? Thus far, it has undertaken 123 assignments, completed 99 of them, and pointed the way to an annual financial saving of \$3,000,000. If pending recommendations are accepted, an additional \$5,000,000 will be realized. The total annual saving, then, actual and potential, is \$8,000,000. These figures take

on added significance when measured against the yearly cost of O. & M. operations, only \$75,000. This means that the operation costs in relation to savings are negligible.

But savings are not the whole story nor even the most important part of the story. They are secondary to the results which are measurable only in terms of improved service. O. & M. has never been interested in economy for the sake of economy unless proposals are in the interests of good administration. In other words, economy is an important by-product but not the main purpose. The primary aim is greater efficiency and in this regard the Division has been even more successful than on the financial side.

In developing its O. & M. work, Canada is in line with progress elsewhere. Management consciousness is spreading rapidly in many countries, including the United States, Britain, France, Holland and Sweden, and there and elsewhere O. & M. Divisions or similar advisory services have been formally established as an aid to operating departments. The same trend is apparent in business and industry and, if anything, has reached a more advanced stage of development in some respects at least. Seemingly, it is an inevitable product of the times.

In Britain the O. & M. Division is attached to the Treasury, while in the United States it is a departmental responsibility guided by a division of the Bureau of the Budget. In Canada, however, it is under the Civil Service Commission. The reason lies in the Civil Service Act, which is more comprehensive in Canada than it is in any other country. Indeed, O. & M. work has always been implied in our responsibilities and, to some extent, was carried out under the guise of organization and classification investigation, a part of our work that is well advanced.

In 1947, however, the separate but re-

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lated nature of the two responsibilities was recognized in the creation of an O. & M. Division within the Organization and Classification Branch. The relationship is, therefore, maintained. In effect, the parent branch deals with the analysis of jobs, as such, and O. & M. concerns itself with organization, operations, methods, and procedures.

In order to shape the Canadian O. & M. service to fit the present and emerging needs of administration, considerable research was carried out and the experience of similar services elsewhere was studied. Conferences were held with representatives of the United States and the United Kingdom and, with the assistance of professional bodies in the management field, information was assembled on modern administrative techniques and methods. Arrangements were also made for an exchange of information with the Committee on Administrative Practices of the International Institute of Public Administration.

Scope of O. & M. Program in Canada

THE program of the O. & M. Division covers three broad areas. First, it carries on the study of specific problems as they arise within departments. In this category we include: the evaluation of paper work methods to eliminate, combine, simplify, and otherwise improve forms, records, and documents; the substitution of mechanical aids for labourious and costly hand methods; the review of the structural lines on which work has been subdivided; and, where necessary, the formulation of organization plans which will secure greater control and more effective coordination.

The second part of the program provides for the study of common services and of problems shared by several or all departments. The object, in this case, is to achieve a greater degree of uniformity through the common application of the most efficient forms, processes, and methods, making, however, such refinements as may be required to meet conditions which apply in each situation.

The third part of the program provides for the collection and adaptation of recorded data on important developments in

management and the examination and utilization of the findings of other investigating bodies.

Some O. & M. Results

MANY important results emerge from O. & M. studies. For example, by simplifying and reducing the number of forms in use, it has been possible to reduce departmental work and relieve the frame of mind of the general public which has to complete the forms. By studying revenue-producing agencies it is sometimes possible to suggest ways and means to effect the collection of amounts which have previously been lost to the Treasury. By suggesting the destruction of old and useless records it is possible to reduce staff and costly space requirements. The same applies when records are microfilmed. Benefits accrue, too, through the elimination of duplication and overlapping between departments, through the reallocation of units and services, and through the elimination of work backlogs. Moreover, it is often possible to avoid needless expansion of old units and the unnecessary establishment of new ones.

There are many similar advantages. On occasion, we have been able to free technical experts from most of their paper work, thereby enabling them to devote nearly all their time to their primary duties. This avoids wasteful expansion of services. In other cases the number of operations needed to complete a given process has been cut markedly, in one case from forty-two to twelve. In still another study, transportation costs were reduced by setting up regional stores depots in preference to the head office centralization that had prevailed. The "lost-file" problem has been largely eliminated in several units through the introduction of more effective control procedures. The substitution of addressograph plates for standard mailing lists has freed many typists for other duties. In places machine bookkeeping has been substituted for manual effort. The illustrations could be pursued almost indefinitely but, by and large, it is through such methods as these that O. & M. meets its objectives.

How O. & M. Studies Are Made

THE first step in an O. & M. study is usually a preliminary survey by a senior O. & M. Officer. It is his job to draw up the terms of reference, outline the scope of the project, and assign a team of officers to the detailed analysis. Great care is exercised in the latter respect since failure to send the right man to the right job may ruin an otherwise promising study. The Division also has to guard against dissipating its energies in abortive or unproductive work. It would be quite easy, if no care were exercised, to tie up our staff in long-term projects with indefinite results at the expense of short-term projects that promise immediate results. The Division concentrates on studies that are reasonably certain to be profitable. Furthermore, we follow up on reports to see if proposals are implemented and assist in their implementation if necessary.

Staffing the O. & M. Division

IN STAFFING the Organization and Methods Division, the Commission sought the services of men and women with wide experience in various fields, including accounting, engineering, business administration, and office management. It was felt that collectively they should provide a pool of experience that would enable the Commission to give as complete a service as possible in the various fields of operation and administration. Most of the seventeen O. & M. officers were recruited from industry and business, although a few were drafted from within the civil service. The experience of one group complements the other.

In order to keep our staff to a minimum, arrangements are made with departments to provide us with supervisory and clerical assistance. By working with the O. & M. officers the departmental employees gain some knowledge of O. & M. work and prove to be a great help in implementing proposals. A few of the larger departments have gone a step farther and formally established small O. & M. sections of their own. These sections, besides doing a limited amount of O. & M. work within their respective departments, uncover assignments for the Commission's specialized of-

ficers and act jointly with them to give effect to the recommendations. The central division, however, remains the core of the program. Some departments have liaison officers to serve as a continuing link with the Commission.

Implementing O. & M. Recommendations

THE O. & M. Division is essentially an advisory service. For the most part requests for assistance come from the Deputy Ministers and Branch Heads of departments and, on occasion, from the Treasury Board, a subcommittee of the Cabinet. There are occasions, too, when we undertake studies on our own initiative. The latter are usually confined to procedures which are common to several or all departments. Thus far the decision to accept or reject the proposals we put forward has rested with the departmental units concerned. Happily, we have, as a general rule, been able to secure their cooperation and it has not been necessary to invoke higher authority, though this is available if required.

It should be emphasized here that O. & M. studies are never construed as reflections on senior officials or the staffs of departments. Perhaps that is why we have been able to gain and hold their support and may also explain in part the great number of requests that are flowing into the Division. In a word, O. & M. success is a product of the joint efforts of the departments and the Commission and the good will which exists between them. The O. & M. officers bring to each study the benefit of their general "know-how" and their collective experience in other departments where similar problems have been studied and remedied. Moreover, they have the time to make an uninterrupted analysis of operations, something that is often beyond departmental officers who are perforce too busy with day-to-day matters. However, the departments can and do make suggestions as to how the studies can be made more profitable and besides they have the intimate knowledge of the work that only comes with long experience. The Commission capitalizes on these two factors, and the departments profit from a detached, expert view. In

other words, we work together, not at cross-purposes.

This approach has many advantages that might not be the case if the studies were undertaken by, say, a specially appointed commission or agency rather than by an established government body. For example, a special commission may lack the responsibility and continuing interest that is part and parcel of a regular agency. Its work is done once its report is tendered. This may account for the inaction that often follows. Moreover, it may lack the confidence on which an established agency can draw and also the wide and intimate

knowledge of the service which a regular agency builds up over the years.

Admittedly, we follow a piecemeal approach to efficiency in that, in any one study, we have confined ourselves to a relatively small segment of the federal administration, although before long systematic projects covering entire departments may replace the study of smaller segments. That, however, will probably be about the limit. There seems to be a great deal of merit in not trying to do everything at once. The substantial record of O. & M. accomplishment seems to confirm this view.

Our Secretary, Miss Jones *By Nadine Hall*



Has my magazine come this month, Miss Jones?



What do you think of these jokes I put in my speech, Miss Jones?



My Dictaphone seems to be broken, Miss Jones!



We really got out a lot of work last night, Miss Jones. We should work more in the evenings.



Are you ready now for dictation, Miss Jones?



Would you mind doing a little more copy work, Miss Jones?



Do you like candy, Miss Jones?



Miss Jones, did you make those three extra copies I asked for?



Are you busy, Miss Jones?



Miss Jones, do you know where my cigars are?



Make that 10 copies instead of eight, will you, Miss Jones?



I hope you haven't typed that 20-page report yet, Miss Jones. We won't need it.



Are you unhappy about something, Miss Jones?



How do you spell "torque," Miss Jones?



"I would have called you earlier, but Miss Jones just gave me your message!"



Miss Jones, would you mind working a little overtime tonight?



"Miss Jones would be glad to type it up for you!"



Er—in case my wife calls, Miss Jones, you might mention that I worked last night.



What did you want to see me about, Miss Jones?



You may take the rest of the day off, Miss Jones!

From Westinghouse News

Delegation of Classification Authority:

Theory and Practice H. DONALD McINNIS

WHEREVER a position classification plan exists, there is always the question of distributing the authority to classify. This problem is usually solved, at least in the public service, by passing final action authority from the central administering agency—such as the Civil Service Commission—to the heads of the various government departments, who determine, in turn, how far down in their respective jurisdictions they will further delegate control. Thus, in the federal government, classification authority passes from the U. S. Civil Service Commission to the sixty-odd executive agency heads, thence to subordinate echelons in diversified administrative patterns. Most agencies, however, subscribe to the practice of delegating classification authority as far down as the independent command level—the regional or district office, or major installation. Almost without exception, such delegation is to the executive head of the office, not to the technicians who do the day-to-day work of classifying.

The purpose of this article is to examine this dominant pattern of delegated classification authority, in an attempt to understand its basis and its effect; and, also, to suggest an alternative arrangement, if such should be indicated by the examination.

The Essential Integrity of Position Classification

THERE is one matter that needs to be disposed of before the main theme of this article can be introduced. This is the matter of the integrity of the position classification function in an organization.

Virtually all students of administration, and most administrators, would agree to the following: (a) positions in an organization should be grouped together for purposes of simplified administration; (b)

such grouping should be on the basis of similarity of duties and responsibilities and nothing else; and (c) the grouping should be done by trained, impartial job analysts. The fair presumption from this would be that everyone is agreed that position classification is beneficial to an organization, that individual classifications should be based only on objective work facts, and that such classification should be rendered only by skilled technicians. No presumption could be farther from the truth.

The fact of the matter is that most administrators conceive of classification—if they think of it favorably at all—as a crude sorting process for the purpose of guiding management in fixing the salaries of employees. These are the executives who believe that the classification of positions strictly on the basis of duties and responsibilities may be a good idea in general, but that in individual cases duties and responsibilities are only two of many considerations that must be weighed in establishing title, grade, and pay. It is this group that would argue, for example, that it is a better thing for an organization to adjust the classification of a position in order to attract a desired employee, than not to adjust the classification and thereby lose the employee. To these officials, the correct classification of positions is entirely a matter of administrative convenience; the technical judgments of the classification analysts merely points of departure in the management process of fixing employee salaries.

This philosophy has no sanction, of course, either in classification theory or classification law. There is no room in the classification method for the chameleon-like practice of applying or ignoring classification principles according to the complexion of the case. No classification plan, however carefully conceived and instituted, can stand up long against a steady

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barrage of "exceptions." Sooner or later, the very conditions which in the first instance demanded the adoption of the classification plan will have been restored.

It is the firm conviction of many people who have spent years studying problems of pay administration that there is only one way to do position classification, and that is to do it right—full, one-hundred-percent, applied-to-every-case, right. It means, especially, doing it right when it hurts—when it means, for example, losing a valuable employee, or not being able to hire an outstanding candidate, or causing someone a financial hardship—or when it just means a bit of extra work for the bosses. Over the long haul, an organization benefits from facing up to such unpleasant decisions. It tends to preserve thereby an integrity and sense of reality that are indispensable to its effectiveness. The point may seem lost at times, but there is a great deal to be said for the argument that the classification function best serves an organization when its technical decisions are always made to stick. There is, also, much to be said for the idea that if classification has not attained such acceptance in an organization it had best be abandoned altogether.

Such, in any case, is the view of many public servants. And such is the fundamental premise of the thesis to be developed here.

Pattern of Delegation: Present

AS INDICATED earlier, the delegation of classification authority in a civil service system follows an almost stereotyped pattern. The nature of that pattern may be indicated by the diagram on page 133.

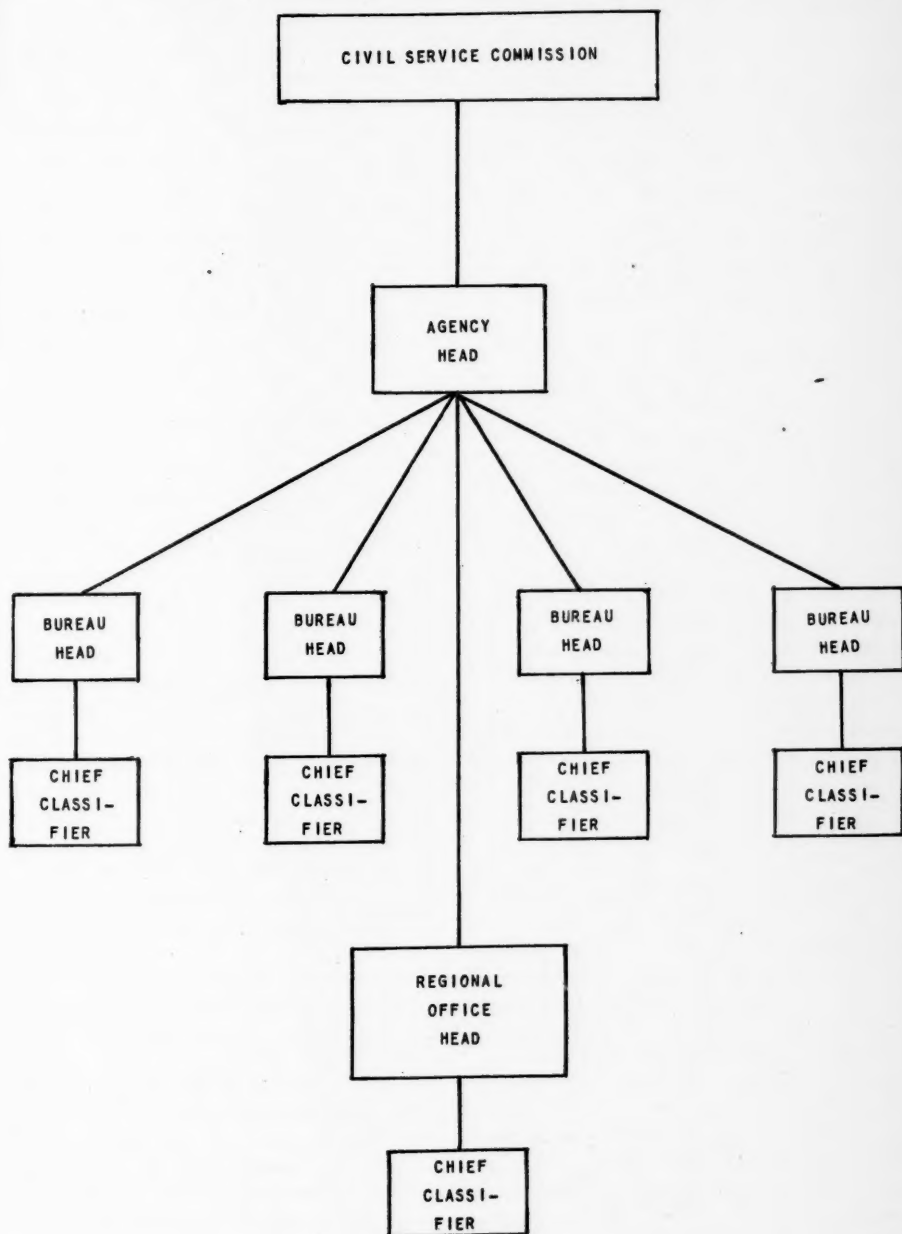
Under the depicted arrangement, responsibility for the administration of the classification system is vested in some central regulatory body, usually a civil service commission. This body normally prefers to concentrate its efforts on policy control, standards development, and operational inspection. It delegates final classification authority to independent agency heads. Agency heads, being in no position, obviously, to study and classify all jobs in their organizations personally, redelegate the authority to subordinate

program levels. Characteristically, at this level the classification staff is born—the group of technicians whose sole job it is to classify all positions in the organization unit in accordance with governing laws and the regulations and standards of the central administering agency. Typically, also, the classification function is integrated into the Personnel Office, as a constituent unit. Normally, in an organization of moderate to large size, the Chief of Classification reports to a Director of Personnel, who reports to a Chief Administrative Officer, who reports to the Agency Head or his Deputy. Normally, also, officials upward of the chief of classification are untrained in the principles, methods, and techniques of position classification.

Origin of the Pattern. One does not have to search long for the thought process that has stamped this rigid organizational pattern on the face of most civil service structures. It runs as follows: classification is an integral phase of over-all management; therefore the top official at each major organizational level should have full control of its use within his organization. . . . If a regional director of an agency is going to be held accountable for the regional program, he must be given authority over all the functions that affect the accomplishment of that program. This includes the classifying of positions. . . . The head of an organization is responsible for the welfare and morale of the employees in the organization. Position classification directly affects both welfare and morale. Therefore, the head of an organization should control position classification in his organization. . . . And so on.

Analysis of the Pattern. There is a great reasonableness to this line of thinking—until it is examined closely. Specifically, what should an official legitimately require of the classification function, as it applies to his organization? He should require three things: (a) that the classification of positions be promptly done; (b) that the classification of positions be correctly done; and (c) that he and his staff be continuously advised of the general uses and specific effects of position classification activity in his organization. Actually, as will be demonstrated later, all three of

TYPICAL LINES OF DELEGATED CLASSIFICATION AUTHORITY



these purposes are served best when the position classifiers are not part of the same organization.

In plain terms, the only purpose to be served by having a classification function in a subordinate role in an organization—be the organization an air station, shipyard, supply depot, regional office, headquarters bureau, or executive department of the government—is to enable the head of that organization to set aside a classification decision that he does not think is right. No matter how many facile syllogisms are gone through in justification of the pattern, this remains the essential argument.

But let us consider this argument. Who is the better judge of the "rightness," or correctness, of a classification decision—the personnel officer who has never classified a job, or the experienced job analyst? The head of an agency, far removed from detailed knowledge of work facts, or the classification staff that is steeped in such knowledge? If the premise is accepted that a classification should *always* be based on duties and responsibilities, there can be only one answer to this question. Nor does this imply that a classification staff never makes a mistake, or that its methods are precise and infallible. Such would be the height of presumption. What it does mean, unequivocally, is that more correct classifications result in an organization when the classifying is done exclusively by position classifiers.

Meanwhile, the Chief Position Classifier attached to an organization under the circumstances outlined follows a somewhat tortuous professional path. However honest and resourceful the classifier, there is no escaping the simple fact that he is on the payroll of someone who is his administrative superior, but (usually) his technical inferior. This means, inevitably, on occasion, the sacrificing of the best technical judgments for what are assumed, erroneously, to be superior administrative judgments. The classifier has no alternative but to accept these periodic overrulings or to resign. The result is the creeping corruption of the classification plan of the organization, with the consequent

introduction of all the ills that the plan was first designed and established to solve.

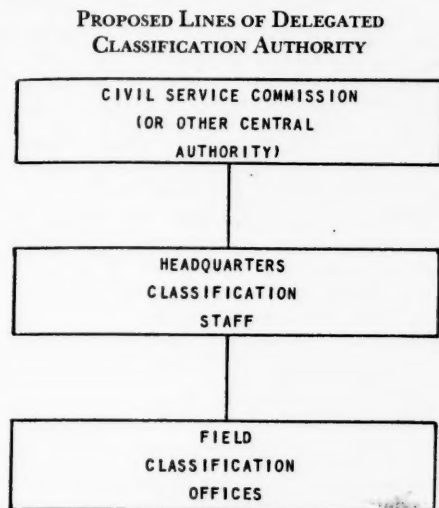
Pattern of Delegation: Proposed

THERE can be little honest doubting, when the history of position classification is considered, but that a shake-up of the traditional pattern of authority delegation is in order. It is the belief of a good many practicing and escaped classifiers that the partial failure of the classification method is traceable, more than to any other factor, to the organizational subordination of classification staffs. A function, in other words, which is essentially objective and essentially technical, has been expected to maintain its objectivity and technical advancement in a situation that not only presents continuing subversive pressures but at the same time removes the independence and authority necessary to resist them successfully. Although the parallel may be more romantic than real, one cannot help reflecting on the results, under corresponding circumstances, of subordinating the judicial function to the executive.

There are several acceptable alternatives to the present pattern of delegated classification authority—alternatives which differ solely in the degree to which they break with the status quo. They are all fundamentally similar as to nature of their deviation; they agree in the desirability of removing the control of the classification function from the jurisdiction of as many officials as possible who do not actually classify positions on a volume basis. Stated another way, they have this in common: the technician immediately in charge of the classification function, and his staff, should be placed as close to the apex of the civil service system in which they work as is administratively practicable. In one system this will mean that the delegation pattern diagrammed earlier will be representative; in another, the Chief of all classification operations will report directly to a high official in the headquarters of the agency; and in another he will report directly to the head of the agency himself.

It is the thesis of this article, however, that an even more radical departure from

the prevailing pattern is required in order to realize fully the benefits of position classification. The nature of this proposed arrangement is outlined in the following diagram:



Under the proposed arrangement, as under the present, responsibility for the administration of the civil service system's position classification plan is vested in a central regulatory body, usually the Civil Service Commission. In this instance, however, authority for classifying all positions under the classification plan is retained in the Commission; it is not delegated to heads of agencies. The classification of positions throughout all governmental agencies is accomplished by the Commission's own position classifiers attached to central or district classification offices located in areas of primary job concentration. In some instances, Commission classifiers are located directly in agency installations of large position population, such as naval shipyards or air force bases. Agency requests for classification action flow to these resident classifiers in exactly the same fashion as they would to classification staffs attached administratively to the agency. The significant difference is that, under the proposed arrangement, no one on the agency staff can order the reversal of a classification judgment on the

grounds that it does not meet with his approval.

As stated earlier, there are three things that the head of an agency can reasonably require of the classification functions: rapid service; quality service; and advisory service. All three of these requirements are met best under the pattern of delegated authority proposed herein.

Rapidity of Classification Service. Quality considerations being equal, rapid service depends primarily upon the availability of enough classifiers to dispose of action requests promptly. There is nothing in the proposed system that would preclude the staffing of the Commission's classification offices in strength adequate to the need—if need be, to the same extent as the agencies themselves would staff them. This is not the point, however. The point is—as has been demonstrated conclusively by the U.S. Navy Department—the rate of production of classifiers under the proposed system is three to four times that of classifiers under the present system. In other words, rapidity of classification service is not only equally maintained; it is increased several-fold when classifiers are subject only to the administrative and technical control of other classifiers. Further, a centralized-decentralized organization pattern of the type recommended permits the prompt reassignment of all members of the team to meet peak workloads, and other emergency conditions, wherever and whenever they occur. The net gain to the government from the proposed pattern is measured not only in terms of faster classification service, but also in terms of increased economy and dollar for dollar return on the taxpayer's public investment.

Quality of Classification Service. Service quality would be enhanced even more greatly than the quantity, were the suggested plan to be adopted. To begin with, the selection, training, and promotion of all position classifiers in the government would be controlled by the central administering agency. This would not only produce greater uniformity, but would, almost inevitably, produce improved technicians and therefore improved classification judgments. In the second place, one

could expect from the proposed pattern a tighter control on the performance of classifiers everywhere, especially in terms of adherence to the Commission's classification evaluation standards. There would certainly be a freer interchange of technical information, interpretations, and guides were all classifiers to be members of the same administrative family. Finally, and most important, the classifiers, charged with the responsibility of classifying positions on the basis of duties and responsibilities, would be removed from the threat of disciplinary action if they were to refuse to classify positions on other grounds. This point has been made much of here, and there is no need to labor it further.

Advisory Service to Operating Officials. Counselling on the effects of reorganizations, suggesting ways of strengthening positions, initiating internal classification procedures, conducting educational and instructional meetings, participating in the development of recruitment and performance standards, and so on, is the classification function least certain to be improved by the recommended change in lines of authority. Presumably, position classifiers, under whatever organizational pattern, will render competent and honest advice when requested to do so. By the same token, it cannot be argued in favor of the present pattern of delegating that advisory service under the proposed would be any less. If anything, it may be argued that advice from a classifier not attached to the agency staff would tend to be more beneficial, for two reasons: he would not be under any psychological compulsion to give merely pleasing answers; he would have, ordinarily, the concurrent knowledge of several different organizations to draw upon for his examples and the nature of his counsel. Nor is there anything to the contention that a classifier must be on the payroll of an organization in order to understand its workings and thereby render intelligent advice. The fact of the matter is that a classifier's advice is apt to have far more balance, perspective, and insight, when the classifier is removed from emotional involvement in the personal and programmatic affairs of the officials whom he is required to advise. The same

factors are present here as militate in favor of the periodic rotation of posts among foreign correspondents and foreign service officers of the Department of State.

Summary and Conclusions

THE thesis of this article can be summarized in the following series of points:

1. The classification of positions was designed and established as an effective method of maintaining pay equity in a given administrative framework, and as a means, generally, of simplifying the management process.
2. The cardinal principle of the classification method is that positions should be classified on the basis of the difficulty and responsibility of their duties, and nothing else.
3. The classification function serves an organization best when it is done correctly; that is, where every position, without exception, is classified strictly on the basis of a careful, objective evaluation of its duties and responsibilities.
4. A condition approaching complete accuracy among position classifications most nearly obtains when the classifying is done exclusively by experienced and competent job analysts.
5. It is not enough that the classifiers be experienced and competent, to render their best service to an organization; they must also be outside the control of nonclassifiers in the organization. Their technical decisions must be subject to review and revocation only by other classifiers.
6. The traditional, and prevailing, method of delegating classification authority does not permit the necessary degree of technical independence for position classifiers, with the unfortunate results to be observed currently in any civil service jurisdiction.
7. Officials in all organizations could expect improved classification service on three counts—speed of action, quality of action, and general staff advice—if all classifiers within the civil service jurisdiction were employed by one agency, and that agency were the Civil Service Commission. In addition, considerable monetary savings could safely be expected.

It is recognized that a number of people might be persuaded by this logical sequence, except for several practical considerations. They can point out, first, that there is no guarantee that the central administering agency—Civil Service Commission, or other—would or could do a

better job in direct operational control of classification; and this is true. They can point out, too, that it might prove extremely difficult to maintain an adequate classification staff because of the increased exposure to legislative budgetary review resulting from the change; and this is also true. Finally, they can charge a grave hazard in concentrating so much authority in one group of people, and then removing many of the counterbalancing controls. Potentially,—at least, this, too, is true.

There are, of course, specific answers to these objections. For example, it could be contended that the sudden accretion by the Civil Service Commission of many agency classifiers of diversified experience and talent would, almost certainly, provide a useful stimulus in the direction of improved policies and techniques and coordinated effort in support of the classification law. Nor should it be blandly assumed, because a general function is suddenly made more susceptible of budgetary appraisal, that the results of such appraisal are destined to be disadvantageous. Finally, it should not be forgotten that the administrative concentration of staff for

the performance of a function, instead of leading to the abuse of authority, normally leads to a more controlled and intelligent use of it. In any case, the established checks and balances of the governmental system are not really affected by any internal reorganizations along the lines proposed.

However, the basic answer to the practical objections is not specific, but general. It is this: something cannot be good in theory and bad in practice; a theory can only be good if it does work in practice. If the points made in this article in favor of a change in the pattern of delegated classification authority are good and valid, then only good may be expected from the effectuation of the recommended change. Practical objections of the type mentioned are not only specifically answerable; they are almost irrelevant. It is demonstrable that a change in the classification system is warranted; it is also demonstrable that an effective alternative plan exists. Practical considerations should enter, not as insuperable barriers, but solely as elements to be evaluated and accounted for in the accomplishment of the main purpose. In this way is progress registered.

Tip for Raters

THE French Civil Service has recently published a looseleaf book containing all the regulations and documents under which it operates. In a review of the book in the *British O & M Bulletin* of April, 1951, the following statement was made. We believe every American supervisor will find it practical advice.

Any civil servant who has been required to make annual reports on a large staff knows how strong can be the temptation to give a "satisfactory" marking to somebody who is not quite up to standard. A circular classified as IV A-04 suggests that the reporting officer, before deciding finally on the marking, should ask himself, "If all my people were like this man in this respect, could my Branch carry on satisfactorily?"

Keeping Up with the

Personnel World PAUL V. VAN RIPER

HOW OFTEN in the past have we heard the bitter cliché that modern personnel administration, particularly in the public service, represents "the triumph of technique over purpose"?

Certainly "specialization is imperative," as Dr. Walter Van Dyke Bingham commented not long ago in the first issue of the new *Journal of Personnel Psychology*. But this specialization can do one of two things for personnel administration, neither of which is entirely the fault of the specialist: (1) We can pile technique upon technique until the house of cards collapses amid a rubbish-heap of unanalyzed test scores. (2) We can fall into what the social anthropologist William F. Whyte recently termed the "patent-medicine approach" to human relations in which the current fad in personnel management becomes the cure-all for our woes. Then we veer like drunken sailors from binges of supervisory training, to orgies of suggestion systems, and from one efficiency rating system to another in kaleidoscopic succession, chasing after something we have yet to define.

Is there anything to be done about all this? I think so. I am not so pessimistic as to think that personnel administration—particularly in the public service—is beyond all hope.

Optimism is, however, not enough. It must be followed first by thought—and then by action. What is to follow here is hopefully dedicated to that crucial first process: Thought.

With that in mind, although I know it is the height of temerity to suggest more to read, I shall attempt here to point out some of the better written and most concise summaries of recent research in the social sciences—research which should be

of concern to the personnel administrator who is interested in something besides appointment statistics.¹

Human Relations

THE NEW watchword of personnel administration has become "Human Relations." A pleasant phrase, capable of many meanings, these words, properly used, can refer to many things besides fancier newsletters and pep talks. Some of the more potentially fruitful efforts of modern social science research are now being spent in intensive investigation of the possibilities inherent in human beings.

For those who would like a glimpse, a brief article in *Personnel* for January, 1951, by the well-known Stuart Chase, "Social Sciences—Friend of Management," will give you a preview of the horizons. Here he describes the concepts engaging research attention, some examples of the rewards of experimentation, and a summary of new techniques. But for more solid fact and a fuller description of this newer investigative world go to Chase's probing inquiry into the science of human relations, *The Proper Study of Mankind*, of which the article referred to is only a summary. Here he points out the relationships of modern social science fact and technique to the problems of labor-management relations, public relations, training, communications, race prejudice, and even war and peace. Written clearly and carefully, this is one of the first attempts to present before the general public—and for the expert as well—the trends and possibilities inherent in the social sciences.

Worthy of special mention here are two concepts designated by Chase as the cen-

¹ This article will not attempt to discuss many of the more technical phases of personnel work. For a general reference bibliography on these problems, see the forthcoming *Bibliography on Public Personnel Administration*, to be issued by the Civil Service Assembly as one of its "Personnel Administration Reports" some time this summer.

• PAUL V. VAN RIPER is Assistant Professor, Department of Political Science, Northwestern University.

tral concepts of the newer social science research, namely, the concepts of "culture" and "group dynamics."

The Culture Concept

THE culture concept emphasizes and highlights the effects of cultural background on behavior. The lesson, of course, implicit in such a way of thinking, is that to move—in personnel administration or in any other type of social activity—too rapidly beyond our cultural milieu is to court disaster. To be effective, one must remember that the future is but an extension of the past and that not all pasts are by any means alike. For the personnel worker, it means considerable patience with individual and group differences; it requires an understanding of the strata of society from whence employees come when they report at eight-thirty and to which they return at five; it impresses us with the fact—and it is a fact—that there is little inherently bad in our fellow men.

To see what this means in a modern American framework one has only to re-read *Middletown* and *Middletown Revisited* by Robert and Helen Lynd. More recently the probing "Yankee City" series by W. Lloyd Warner and his associates in sociology, together with Alexander Leighton's (1949) analysis of the successful efforts of his team of social scientists in predicting the imminent collapse of the Japanese during World War II from a study of the effects of the war upon their cultural system, make clear that in America our cultural milieu (even our traditional Anglo-Saxon one) is plural, not singular; that it is long-lasting and pervasive; and that we ignore it, in personnel administration especially, at our peril. If you are still not convinced—well, go read the Kinsey report.

Group Dynamics

WITHIN all cultures, so the famous Cross-Cultural Index maintained at Yale University tells us, is found the group, the small face-to-face primary division of society. But, even though we know it to be essential, its purpose, function, and working mechanism are not well understood.

On the American scene the epoch-mak-

ing studies of the Hawthorne Works of the General Electric Company by Roethlisberger and Dixon, summarized in 1940 in *Management and the Worker*, have brought home the crucial facts that the worker needs to realize his importance and that, unless he finds a satisfying status within some of his primary group relationships, production—no matter what the product—will suffer. The economic man of the classical economists is, from the point of view of the personnel administrator and the management engineer, a myth.

If World War II interrupted some of the efforts which might have been expected to follow in the light of the Hawthorne studies, it also stimulated an extensive inquiry into what today is often designated as "group dynamics." Especially important is the coordinated research program of the Research Center for Group Dynamics of the Institute for Social Research at the University of Michigan. Supported by a group of foundations, universities, and government agencies, the Center has embarked upon a ten-year program (now at the halfway mark) of inquiry into the principles governing group performance and group motivation. The program and activities of the Center have recently been summarized in the Institute's explanatory pamphlet titled *The Research Center for Group Dynamics* by Dorwin Cartwright. The publications emanating from the Center, in one form or another, already total over a hundred. The work edited by James G. Miller, *Experiments in Social Process* (1950), is perhaps as useful as any on the problems of method. *Resolving Social Conflicts* by the late Kurt Lewin is a tribute both to the potential effectiveness of applied research in group dynamics and to the efforts of its author, the original founder of the Center.

In an effort to coordinate its efforts with that of the world-famous Tavistock Institute of Human Relations in London, England, the Center has combined with its British counterpart to edit the new (1947) journal, *Human Relations*, a quarterly contribution aimed at coordinating some of the literature in the field.

Other aspects of the trend toward the

analysis of group activity and the application of that analysis to practical personnel problems have been manifest, of course, in the well-known "group tests." The group oral examination, for instance (see Roberta Scott's *The Group Oral Test in Selecting Public Employees*, published by the Civil Service Assembly in 1950), represents nothing more than an attempt to humanize our testing relationships. The application of the same group testing techniques to the selection of officer candidates for the British Army has been summarized by Henry Harris in *The Group Approach to Leadership Testing* (London, 1949). Even the novel "country-house" testing techniques, first associated with the British and later with the American OSS (outlined in *Assessment of Men* by the OSS testing staff) have at their roots the fundamental fact that behavior is not entirely an individual matter—but one which is heavily conditioned by complex intra- and inter-group relationships.

Branching out from the investigations in group dynamics, and sometimes in conjunction with them, are some of the current efforts aimed at the evaluation of the nature, causes, and effects of leadership. Here the Institute for Social Research is only one of several agencies now engaged upon research into the hows and whys behind the emergence of some individuals into positions of prominence as compared to other individuals—again, within the context of the all-pervasive group. A few of these efforts, such as those of Prof. Carroll Shartle and associates at Ohio State University and the Institute of Human Relations in Philadelphia have been briefly outlined by Edward McCrensky of the Office of Naval Research in the March, 1951, issue of *Personnel Administration*.

A summary of the inquiries of the Office of Naval Research, interested currently in a wide variety of personnel matters, is found in the July, 1950, issue of the *Personnel Information Bulletin* of the Veterans Administration. The Navy is interested both in the fields of leadership and group motivation and also in the areas of morale and psychological warfare. About the work of the top-secret Rand Corpora-

tion of the U.S. Air Force much less is publicly known, but its general goals and techniques are briefly described under the provocative heading of "The War of Wits" in the March, 1951, issue of *Fortune*.

For more specific references to the publications of these various agencies one can inquire directly of the Office for Naval Research, the Institute for Social Research, and the rest, for many of their studies are available to the general public. Nor should one neglect an occasional examination of the publications of such agencies as the Harvard Business School, the Yale Labor and Management Center, and the Cornell University School of Industrial and Labor Relations. Under the melting pot influences of World War II, the interests of public and private personnel administrators have fused as never before.

Communications

THE avalanche of research being done on communications is another sign of our current realization of the complexity of our cultural relations pattern. Only a small part of it can be referred to here. On the one hand are the familiar techniques of the suggestion system, the grievance procedure, the newsletter, and the conference. The Current Literature section of *Public Personnel Review* abstracts article after article on these topics. More important for the future, however, are some of the more fundamental types of research into the psychology and sociology of communication.

The Institute for Social Research—primarily through its other major branch, the Survey Research Center—represents one of the more important pioneerings into fundamental matters. Aided by the foundations, the Department of the Navy, and others, the Center has embarked on a ten-year program. Some of the results have been summarized in the Institute's publication, *Human Relations Program of the Survey Research Center*. Up to the end of 1950, some ten specific projects or investigations had been undertaken, involving the clerical workers of the Prudential Life Insurance Company, the utilization of manpower at the Pensacola Naval Air Station, the internal relationships between

workers and managerial personnel in a large Michigan public utility, and a study of the problem of membership in overlapping groups under an unusual joint sponsorship by the Studebaker Corporation and the officials of the United Automobile Workers, C.I.O.

Not all the findings of the Survey Research Center are yet available to the general public, but the results of several studies of major importance for public personnel administrators, such as that of the clerical workers of the Prudential Life Insurance Company (entitled *Productivity, Supervision, and Employee Morale*) can be obtained by writing the Center. More than that, the Center has published materials on its methods and procedures, such as *Human Relations Study Techniques* (1949).

Of the wartime research efforts into military motivations, probably the most important and revealing program of investigation was that of the War Department, which has been summarized in several volumes during the past two years. Published under the auspices of the Social Science Research Council of New York and the Committee on Analysis of Experience of the Research Branch, Information and Education Division, Army Service Forces, *Studies in Social Psychology in World War II* (4 vols., 1949 and 1950) provide what is in many ways a startling analysis of American behavior under one set of conditions. The methods and techniques, perhaps of more interest to the active personnel administrator than the findings, have been summarized in a little volume edited by Robert K. Merton and Paul F. Lazarsfeld, *Continuities in Social Research: Studies in the Scope and Method of "The American Soldier."*

Another intriguing aspect of communications engineering is represented by the attempt of Rudolf Flesch to provide, through his "readability scales" an antidote to the fancy writing Maury Maverick once labeled "gobbledegook." A "Flesch Readability Reading List," including a special list on the use of the Flesch scales by governmental agencies, appeared in the Autumn, 1950, issue of *Personnel Psychology*. Of course, those who are not yet familiar with the principles of the Fleschian

formulae will want to go directly to the source—the highly readable *Art of Plain Talk*, published in 1946, and the more recent *Art of Readable Writing*.

Paul Irvine, in the July, 1949, issue of *Public Personnel Review*, described the government writers' workshop of the State of Alabama, where editors of public reports learn to apply the principles and methods of the newer readability systems. The work of the U.S. Department of Agriculture in applying the Flesch and other formulae to the many publications designed for their extension service and other readers has been described in a number of articles, especially those in the *Journal of Home Economics* during the fall of 1945 and *College English* for May, 1946. Or, see *How Does Your Writing Read?* published by the U.S. Civil Service Commission in 1946. The Readability Unit Reports of the Division of Field Studies and Training, Extension Service, Department of Agriculture, have been providing a continuous source of information on the preparation and revision of government reports.

Another novel type of applied communications research was undertaken not long ago by General Motors Corporation in the form of the much-publicized "My Job Contest." Described in some detail in the 1949 issues of *Personnel Psychology* (a series of articles under the title: "My Job Contest—An Experiment in New Employee Relations Methods"), the contest, upon exhaustive analysis of the vast amount of materials on employee attitudes which it made available, provided a basis for a re-evaluation of the entire human relations system of one of the greatest American corporations. Many of the techniques and principles should be equally useful to the public administrator, though, as always, he will want to refine and redefine to suit his own purposes.

Allied Matters

EVEN in the time-honored, if a trifle shopworn field of testing, there is an amazing renaissance. The group oral test and the group testing of officer candidates have been mentioned already. The executive testing programs of the U.S. Civil Service Commission and many private industrial

firms are also receiving considerable comment in current literature. The survey published by *Fortune* in July, 1950, under the heading of "Tests of Management," covers many of the recent developments.

But, with one major exception to be mentioned below, the more complex investigations in the field of testing have probably been proliferating in the military rather than the civil branches of the government. Outstanding among the published results is the 19-volume series outlining the Aviation Psychology Program of World War II. A much less formidable summary, the first volume of the series, entitled *The Aviation Psychology Program in the Army Air Forces*, is obtainable from the Superintendent of Documents in Washington, D.C., for a nominal sum.

The efforts and approach of the Applied Psychology Panel of the National Defense Research Committee have been succinctly outlined by C. W. Bray in *Psychology and Military Proficiency*, published by the Princeton University Press in 1948. Dewey Stuit has edited an account of the activities of the Navy in *Personnel Research and Test Development in the Bureau of Naval Personnel* (1949). For a comparison of the old and the radically revised new efficiency rating systems of the U.S. Army, see an article by Colonel James C. Fry in the *Infantry Journal* (now the *Combat Forces Journal*) for July, 1948. A general survey of "Army Personnel Research" can be found in the July, 1948, issue of *Public Personnel Review*.

But one of the most interesting developments—again a result of the modern concern with the ramifications of culture—is arising from the studies of a group of social scientists at the University of Chicago with the financial backing of the General Education Board of the Rockefeller Foundation. These men have been interested for over five years in the problem of developing what they term a "culture-fair" test. They want to find out "whether the wide variations in average group IQ's may not be chiefly a function of the kinds of problems and languages used in the tests themselves, rather than of heredity." Preliminary conclusions indicate a probable "Yes," indicating, in turn, the need for a continu-

ous reexamination of many of our traditional testing procedures. An article by Dr. Alison Davis and Dr. Robert Hess, "How Fair Is an IQ Test?" in the January, 1951, issue of *The University of Chicago Magazine* describes some of the aims and results of this work.

In Your Own Back Yard

IN 1934 the U.S. Civil Service Commission employed Lewis Meriam, well-known for his writing and investigations in public personnel administration, to make perhaps the first management survey of the organization and methods of the Commission itself. Sometimes it is easier to investigate others than to survey ourselves. But with the incipient, and in many cases quite real, manpower shortages there will be more pressure than ever to cut into what the military agencies term "rear-echelon troops" in favor of the "front-line" agencies. Nor is the personnel office exempt from such scrutiny. Julius Eittington, Chief of the Classification Branch of the National Park Service, put the question cogently in the January, 1951, issue of *Personnel*: "Does Our Personnel Program Extend to the Personnel Office?" Referring to another introspective article in the July, 1950, issue of *Public Personnel Review*, Eittington suggests a number of dusty corners where something more than sweeping under the rug might be appropriate.

Certainly, if personnel agencies do not concern themselves with their own manpower, legislatures will. This certainly was recently demonstrated by the employee utilization investigations made by the U.S. Congress and summarized in a set of reports published by the House Committee on Post Office and Civil Service and titled *Investigation of Employee Utilization in the Executive Departments and Agencies* (House Report No. 2457, in six brief parts). All public personnel administrators might find it illuminating to check their operations against the criteria outlined in this investigation.

One outlet for the hard-pressed agency is, of course, through increased in-service training and the training-within-industry techniques of World War II, some of which have been clearly summarized by Stuart

Chase in his *Men at Work* and more in detail by *The Training Within Industry Report* of the War Manpower Commission, published in 1945.

The problems of discrimination and race relations also inevitably come to the fore in times of labor shortage, for it is then that the wastage of talent and the resulting frictions become most obvious. The realistic report of a special President's Committee on *Freedom to Serve: Equality of Treatment and Opportunity in the Armed Service* (1950) has already provided the basis for a radically revised policy toward the utilization of Negro and other manpower in the armed services. The Army's pamphlet on "The Command of Negro Troops" and its Navy equivalent also point the way for public administrators in civil as well as military jurisdictions.

The relationships of minorities to each other and to larger groups is a continuing problem in all types of employment. Not only the reports of interested military agencies, but also the brief and readable pamphlets emanating from the New York State and Minnesota State Commissions on employment practices and race relations should be investigated. An unusual study, the *Dynamics of Prejudice*, has recently been produced by Bruno Bettelheim and Morris Janowitz. For the most exhaustive and provocative study of the problem of the Negro in American life, the report by Gunnar Myrdal on *The American Dilemma* is unexcelled. The whole problem of social conflict and some of the more hopeful solutions for the guidance of face-to-face relations have been discussed by Stuart Chase in *Roads to Agreement* (1951). A sequel to his preceding work, *The Proper Study of Mankind*, the newer study highlights a facet of human relations—conflict and agreement.

Finally, there is the problem of labor-management relations in the public service. Here we refer to the power relationships implicit under the more euphemistic label of "employee relations." The strike, collective bargaining, the boycott, etc., all lie only a short way beneath the surface of day by day pleasantries. As the problems of an emergency—which may be more than an emergency—commence to accumulate,

it is probable that the historical American doctrine of the sovereignty of the state, which has somewhat obscured the problems implicit in public employee unionization may call for considerable inventiveness. Certainly the recently published study by Morton Godine on *The Labor Problems in the Government Service* (1951) emphasizes the theory and practice involved in a way that has not been done since the Civil Service Assembly's committee report on *Employee Relations in the Public Service*.

Bureaucracy and Loyalty

IF "TECHNIQUE" is to become a sign of freedom rather than bondage in personnel administration, it must continually be reexamined—not only for its immediate usefulness but also for its relationship to the paralysis of large-scale endeavor so often termed "bureaucracy." Though not entirely concerned with the problems of personnel administration, the generally sympathetic though somewhat unorthodox approach of Prof. Charles Hyneman in his *Bureaucracy in a Democracy* provides a stimulating analysis of the difficulties in the way of even the most conscientious administrator. The newly-published (1951) *Art of Administration* by Ordway Tead should also be of considerable interest.

But more pressing even than the kind of "silent sabotage" occasioned by "red tape" is the more explicit and controversial problem of "loyalty." Often shrouded in personality and prejudice, it becomes a topic which it is difficult to approach in any rational manner. Nevertheless, at least two studies have recently appeared which provide some of the background for any careful evaluation of the problems involved. Walter Gellhorn's work on *Security, Loyalty, and Science* and Alan Barth's *The Loyalty of Free Men* neither attempt to ignore the problem nor to subject it to the "witch-hunt" or "anti-witch-hunt" type of treatment.

Looking Backward

LAST of all, it may be appropriate to suggest that underneath the surface of the tests and techniques of modern public personnel administration there is yet the im-

plicit—and often terribly explicit—threat of political patronage of the Jacksonian variety. The history of the rise and decline of this type of political manipulation of the public service is best surveyed in the still readable study of the *Civil Service and the Patronage* by Carl Russell Fish, published in 1905. A more complete history of American administrative endeavor has, however, been commenced by Leonard D. White. *The Federalists* and the forthcoming volumes of Professor White's contemplated series should provide a solid platform of past experience upon which to project the future. Studies of the more modern politics of patronage are singularly lacking, but the power of the past—as carried into the present—is dramatically illustrated in a booklet by H. O. Waldby of the University of Oklahoma entitled *The Patronage System of Oklahoma* (1950).

It may be wise, in pondering the future, as we have done throughout the major portion of this general survey of some of the

modern facets of the social sciences of interest to public personnel administrators, to remember that the American future can only be, in large part, an extension of the American past. With our "group dynamics," our "human relations," and our "techniques," it is only too easy to take the fundamental basis of modern personnel administration, the merit system, for granted. But, as Graham Wallas made clear more than forty years ago, the invention of the politically neutral civil service is strictly a modern creation, and one which in some American jurisdictions is yet more honored in the breach than in the practice.

Certainly the least we can do, busy though we may be, is now and then to take time out from our concentration on the details of the moment to survey some of the broader implications of the past and the present in order that the future may be as we would wish it to be. If this article helps, even a trifle, toward that end, it will have served its purpose.

Well Qualified

THE personnel director had majored in psychology and usually employed it in interviewing applicants. The manager of the firm was looking for a secretary and sent three applicants for interviews. When the interviews were concluded, the personnel director made his report.

"I asked the usual questions," he said, "and my findings are that the first girl is a good worker but lacks initiative; the second girl is equally capable but might be too domineering; the third girl has a normal amount of self-confidence and seems very competent. Now which one shall I hire for you?"

"The manager's response was prompt: 'I'll take the blonde with the blue eyes!'"—*The Dome*, May, 1951.

Evolution of New York State's Employee Relations Program . ALLEN S. HUBBARD, JR.

THOSE engaged in personnel work know that unsatisfied demands for higher wages and improved working conditions are not the only things that cause serious labor troubles. The employee's feeling that management persists in regarding him as an automaton devoid of any personal feelings is the core of many a dispute.

The great majority of people need to talk about their troubles. And because the job plays such an important part in their lives, it is particularly essential to morale and mental well-being that employees be encouraged to express their troubles and make suggestions freely and effectively in the office or in the workshop. Complaints are indigenous to every scene of employment. They are, in fact, actually symbolic of a natural and healthy condition, for employee relations are never static but are changing every day. With each change and event comes some form of employee reaction—favorable or unfavorable—with its good or bad effect on employee relations. Unless management understands these reactions and through understanding is given the opportunity to act, there can be no sound basis for good employee relations.

New York State Acts

THE state of New York under Governor Thomas E. Dewey has been increasingly cognizant of the importance of motivating its employees to greater efforts on the job, as well as to greater personal satisfaction through the job, by prompt and just settlement of their complaints. The state's major efforts in this sphere of its civil service responsibilities commenced in 1945 when Governor Dewey created a three-member Personnel Council in the Department of Civil Service. In his remarks at that time, Governor Dewey said in part:

• ALLEN S. HUBBARD, JR., is Chairman of the New York State Personnel Relations Board. The work of this Board, established in February, 1950, is described in this article.

The function of this Council is primarily educational. Policy determinations and administrative rulings made in Albany are often of immediate personal interest to a large number of the State's employees from one end of the State to the other. Interpretations by departmental officers and supervisors sometimes vary, resulting in dissimilar treatment that naturally creates a certain amount of dissatisfaction, if not unwarranted discrimination. Reliable information widely disseminated and properly understood will permit settlement within the operating departments of differences that arise from faulty interpretation of state policies and procedures.

It is also essential that a means be provided for the adjustment of differences of opinion as to the effectiveness and practical application of policies affecting employee welfare. Constructive criticisms and suggestions for improvement of our personnel management should be fully investigated and, where merited, brought to the Civil Service Commission and the budget director as specific recommendations.

It will be the function of this Council at regular meetings with personnel and departmental fiscal officers to establish the channels through which the foregoing objectives may be attained, the obvious effect of which will be to promote efficiency in the departments and secure in the shortest possible interval of time a sound and equitable solution of employee problems.

At its second meeting with department personnel officers held on July 11, 1945, the Personnel Council, pursuant to the Governor's directive, launched a vigorous campaign toward the development of communication procedures for the "sound and equitable solution of employee problems." The history of the Council reveals that it has been quite successful in keeping employees informed on major personnel policies and rules affecting them and in standardizing personnel practices formerly handled in a variety of ways by the different departments. Considerable headway has been made in establishing state-wide standards in such troublesome areas as service

record ratings, attendance rules, and vacations.

State-Wide Policies Needed

BUT the Personnel Council soon came to the realization that it lacked the necessary power to accomplish the Governor's aims in the field of resolving employee complaints. The Council had been compelled to limit its activities to educating operating departments in establishing standards for good communication procedures and to unauthorized intervention in purely intra-departmental disputes which in most instances proved abortive. Feeling that strong administrative backing was needed if substantial results in this field were to be accomplished, Miss Mary Goode Krone, Chairman of the Council, in June 1947, appealed to Governor Dewey. In a letter to him she stated that in order for the Council to exert real leadership in the improvement of personnel relations and in the establishment of effective complaint machinery, there should be state-wide, well-defined policies and procedures for the handling of employee complaints at all operating levels from the immediate supervisor up to and including the Personnel Council and that such policies and procedures should include employee participation in its formulation and use.

As a part of its recommendation, the Council advocated that formalized procedures tailored to state service be established in every state agency, recognizing, however, that the procedures would have to vary slightly based upon such factors as size, geographical spread, and predominant type of work.

The Personnel Council also submitted to Governor Dewey its own recommendations of appropriate standards for a uniform grievance machinery. As a result of these recommendations, the Governor at his next cabinet meeting requested Industrial Commissioner Edward Corsi to present to the heads of departments a memorandum containing his suggestions for the handling of complaints among state employees. Mr. Corsi made a thorough analysis of all the problems involved culminating in a report and recommendations

which served as a basis for all subsequent efforts.

Proposed Legislation by Civil Service Association

AT ABOUT the same time that the Industrial Commissioner was engaged in his study, the Civil Service Employees Association of New York State was also giving thought to the improvement of employee relations and framed a bill for introduction in the 1948 Legislature setting forth procedures "for consultation, negotiation, and discussion of working conditions including grievances and other personnel matters." The Association's bill provided for a tripartite public employment labor relations board appointed by the Governor to be created within the Department of Civil Service. The board was to have two principal functions, first to supervise the establishment at all levels of governmental administration of joint employer-employee committees for the adjustment of employee problems; and second, to act as an appeals agency for unresolved disputes.

The Governor, however, sought an experimental approach to the problem. The need for well-defined policies and procedures governing relations between the state and its employees he felt would be more appropriately met through the instrumentality of an Executive Order, and he directed the Personnel Council to explore further the advisability of such an order.

Employee Organizations Consulted

DURING the fall of 1949, the Civil Service Employees Association, the American Federation of County and Municipal Employees, A.F.ofL., the Civil Service Forum, and representatives of the United Public Workers of America, CIO, were all invited by the Personnel Council to express their views on bettering the relations between the state and its employees.

In line with the Governor's views, the CIO union representatives expressed the view that the initial procedures should be established by administrative action, since they felt that in this way more flexibility would be provided and difficulties not im-

mediately obvious would more readily iron themselves out. It also suggested that the State Mediation Board constitute the final appeal agent and that representation in the handling of complaints not be limited to state employees but include representatives of employee organizations.

The Civil Service Forum, too, appeared to favor the setting up of grievance machinery by a directive from the Governor rather than by action of the Legislature. In its opinion, the simpler the operation of the machinery the greater would be its chances of success. It further held to the view that education of both employer and employee in the operation of the machinery would be necessary to achieve a smooth working and efficient program. The Forum believed that once a basic plan was achieved, it would ultimately follow that the scope of the plan would be enlarged and improved through actual experience.

The A.F.o.L. agreed with the Executive Order plan, advocated elected six-member departmental employee committees with a chairman from without the state service, and recommended that the Order not be applicable to matters for which civil service appeals procedures already existed, such as salary and job classification appeals procedures and service record ratings.

Supplied with these expressions from employee organizations interested in the idea, an official committee acting as advisors to the Governor, and a committee of the Civil Service Employees Association, applied themselves to the task of formulating standards and procedures for handling employee complaints on the basis of executive authority. Numerous conferences were held between the Governor's committee and the committee representing the Civil Service Employees Association for the purpose of arriving at mutually satisfactory standards and procedures.

Executive Order Creates Personnel Relations Board

THROUGHOUT the negotiations there continued to be two major points of difference. One concerned the constitution of a state-wide administrative and review board, the other concerned the method of

selecting a departmental review committee. All agreed that a top review board and a departmental review committee should exist, but were in disagreement as to its formation. Broadly speaking, the Governor's Advisory Committee desired that the Civil Service Commission be assigned administrative control of the new program, whereas the Association's committee was in favor of a separately created agency. As to the departmental review committees, the issue involved a composition which would be fair to both administrators and employees. When negotiations reached an impasse over these major issues, the two committees decided to call upon the Governor for his aid in settling their differences. The Governor directed his counsel to act as conciliator and an agreement was finally reached which was embodied in the Governor's Executive Order of February 23, 1950.

By this Order there was established in the Department of Civil Service the Personnel Relations Board with the following powers and duties:

1. To administer a program for resolving employee complaints and problems relating to conditions of employment in the state service and to promote cooperation between the State and its employees.
2. To promulgate such rules and regulations as may be necessary to carry out the provisions of this order.
3. To report to the Governor, for appropriate action, the failure of any department or agency to establish properly or maintain satisfactorily the standards, principles and procedures embodied in and authorized by this order.
4. To publish and distribute appropriate pamphlets and other publications to the end that all employees are fully informed of their rights under this order and the procedures through which those rights may be exercised.
5. To render advice and assistance to employees, and to administrative officers of state departments and agencies.
6. To hold hearings, to require the attendance of officers and employees of the state as witnesses and to require the production or examination of records, books and papers of state departments or agencies relating to matters before the board.

Under the Order, the Personnel Rela-

tions Board has three members headed by a full-time Chairman who is responsible for the administration of the program. The Chairman is appointed by the Governor to serve at his pleasure. He is the only member paid for serving on the Board. The second member is selected by the Chairman on a rotating basis from a panel of twelve employees appointed by the Governor from among all state employees, including those in exempt positions. The third member is also selected by the Chairman on a rotating basis from a panel of twelve employees appointed by the Governor, but this panel is confined to employees from the competitive class. Under the Board's own rules, each panel member serves a period of two months and then is replaced by another panel member.

Departmental Procedures Required

THE Executive Order also directs the establishment of a simple orderly procedure for the resolution of complaints within each department or separate agency. Following the pattern established in private industry and in the federal government, each departmental procedure directs that an employee shall first take up his complaint with his immediate supervisor. If the matter is not resolved at this level, he may appeal to the next higher authority and so on up through his chain of command to the head of his department, thereby giving each successive supervisor in the chain the opportunity to settle the complaint. If the employee is still dissatisfied after exhausting his departmental procedure, he may request the Personnel Relations Board to review his complaint. Upon such request, the Board will review the case and render an advisory recommendation to the head of the department concerned.

The departmental unit committees deserve special mention because they provide the means for employee participation in the settlement process. Before an employee may bring his complaint to the department head he must first submit it to his unit committee for its investigation and advisory recommendation.

The committee is formed *ad hoc* and

consists of three persons—one selected by the employee bringing the complaint from a panel of employees previously chosen by his fellow employees; one selected by the head of the department; and the third selected by the first two from among the employee's served by the panel. The departmental panel serves for one year and its size depends upon the number of employees in the department, there being approximately one panel member for every fifty employees. In the larger departments there may be more than one panel for administrative convenience.

Employee Reaction to Program

THE warm welcome expressed by officers of the Civil Service Employees Association, Inc., with its large enrollment of approximately 44,000 state employees, speaks well for the success of the new procedures. A statement released by that organization upon issuance of the Governor's Executive Order reads, in part:

No law or rule or order since civil service began has had as great promise and potentiality for improving the work life of the state employee as is possible under the Governor's Executive Order of February 23, 1950, setting up new machinery for resolution of employee complaints.

Immediately after the issuance of the Executive Order setting up the new Personnel Relations Board, the first of its kind offered to employees of any state, the Personnel Council prepared to turn over its employee complaint files to the Board. The Council felt that its records and experience dealing with employee complaints would be of value to the new Board, which has proved to be the case. As a clearing house and coordinating agency in bringing collective action on problems of personnel administration, the Council has continued its valuable work with personnel officers as an interdepartmental organization.

Organization of Board

THE first appointment to the new Personnel Relations Board was that of the Chairman, in July, 1950, who shortly thereafter began working with appointing officials,

personnel officers, and employee organizations to develop mutually acceptable rules and procedures to implement the Executive Order. In addition to the Chairman, the presently authorized staff of the Personnel Relations Board has an employee counsellor, two training supervisors, one field representative, and two stenographers.

On October 7, 1950, Governor Dewey appointed the two Board panels of twelve persons each, previously mentioned, from which the Chairman selected the first Board's other two members who were the First Deputy Commissioner of the Health Department and a senior stenographer in the Division of Veterans' Affairs. With their selection, the Board proceeded to formulate and issue its rules and regulations to implement the Governor's Executive Order.

Commenting on the Board's rules and regulations, the President of the Civil Service Employees Association said that he was pleased to note that certain changes recommended by the Association in the original draft, which had been submitted to employee organizations and department officials for their suggestions, had been incorporated into the final rules and regulations. The Association further declared that since the plan was new, with very little precedent for it in public employment, the rules should be tested by actual use before deciding upon what changes, if any, should be made.

The Board's rules merely provide the machinery for implementing the basic principles contained in the Executive Order, including such matters as internal administration, the method of selecting departmental panels, imposition of time limits for each step of the grievance procedure, and departmental reports to the Board on the handling of complaints within the department.

Type of Complaints Received

WITH certain exceptions specifically mentioned in the Executive Order, employees may use the new procedures to present any complaint relating to their conditions of employment. This would include com-

plaints concerning an employee's physical working conditions, work assignments, interpretation and application of rules and policies dealing with personnel matters, and relations with supervisors and fellow employees. Specifically excluded from the Order's application, however, are disciplinary proceedings, examination ratings, service ratings, and job classification and salary allocation, for which appeals procedures are already provided by New York law.

The Personnel Relations Board has no enforcement power of its own, since the department head by law is responsible for the operation of his department and final decision on Board recommendations must, therefore, rest with him. It is directed, however, to report directly to the Governor for his appropriate action all cases of violation of the Order.

Since the Board's creation and initial publicity, the tendency has been for employees to bring their complaints directly to the Board. To these employees, the Board has tried to be helpful, but it has also had to be firm in pointing out that they cannot be permitted to circumvent their departments' own procedures, and that the Board should be recognized only as the last step in the review procedure. Employees and supervisors must be constantly reminded to make every effort to settle complaints at the first level of supervision, and only where that has failed to take the matter to the next higher authority. Thus far in the state's experience, most employee complaints have been settled at the immediate supervisory level and only one has been referred to the Board for review.

Training and Publicity

As a part of its program to improve employee relations in state service, the Board is sponsoring a supervisory training course in the art of leadership in supervision, stressing the handling of employee complaints. This course is being conducted jointly by the Board and the Training Division of the Department of Civil Service.

The Board has considered one of its chief responsibilities the indoctrination of

all employees in the Board's policies and procedures. In addition to talks by the Chairman and the Board's field representative to employee groups throughout the state, helpful information about the program has been given extensive circulation among employees through numerous articles in the *State Personnel News*, a monthly publication of the Personnel Council, and through releases to the various civil service publications and daily papers. To further publicize its role in the over-all program, the Board has issued an illustrated booklet entitled "What's the Trouble?" which has been distributed to every state employee. The booklet presents in plain and simple terms the procedures that an employee should follow in presenting his complaint.

The Job Ahead

ALL OF New York state's nineteen departments are now operating under complaint procedures approved by the Board. Also each of the state's many hospitals and other institutions have established their own procedures. While the broad standards for the establishment of local procedures have been laid down by the Board, the procedures themselves may vary according to local conditions. In working out practical department procedures, administrative officials have made it a practice to confer with employee representatives in order to insure a mutually satisfactory plan.

The spirit with which both employees and administrators have welcomed the program forecasts success in this new venture in public personnel administration.

Undoubtedly, experience will point up the need for some revision in the procedures discussed in this article. Policies, too, may require change. This much, however, is certain. The real significance of the program lies in the fact that government operating departments and agencies throughout New York state have been made more conscious of the need for prompt settlement of employee complaints at the lowest possible level of supervision. Whereas previously department officials were often in the dark as to employee reaction to administrative personnel policies and practices because unresolved complaints were permitted to accumulate below, now it is becoming accepted as routine administration by immediate supervisors that unsettled employee complaints should immediately be referred to higher authority.

To enable supervisors to discharge their obligations under the new procedures requires continuous training, not only in the procedures themselves but in the principles of good leadership. Supervisors must be thoroughly indoctrinated in the principles and objectives of the state's personnel policies in the field of employee relations. They must learn to accept employee complaints as endemic to the work situation and to regard their adjustment as necessary to the efficiency and morale of their force. To motivate supervisors along these lines has always been inherent in the state's personnel policy. Through its newly developed employee relations procedures, the state hopes to furnish an added impetus toward improved supervisory attitudes in this field.

Case Method and Public Personnel Administration . HENRY REINING, JR.

THE CASE method was first introduced to American academic use, according to several reference books, with the study of judicial decisions at the Harvard Law School. The date given is 1871.¹ The idea of its introduction into the Harvard curriculum was that the judicial decision and the supporting reasoning were basic to the development of the law. A lawyer's practice was in the form of cases, therefore, the study of law might well be centered on the case as a means of learning both the substance and method of the law.

The case method had been so well established by 1914 in the American law schools that one began to hear complaints that it had been carried too far; that the student learned no law as such, only a string of cases; that he read no texts, no commentaries, no statutes, only cases.²

Harvard University can also probably claim credit for introducing the case method into the instructional program of the Graduate School of Business. If there is a direct lineal antecedent for cases in public administration, it probably is the Harvard Business School case program.³ However, it should quickly be added that the legal case method had already penetrated into other reaches of higher education by the 1920's when the Harvard Business cases came into prominence. This penetration was in the form of the case

books used in courses in constitutional and administrative law which in many places preceded the public administration curricula.⁴ Professor Ernst Freund had a case-book on administrative law in university use by 1911.⁵

The case method has also been a conspicuous part of several other professional curricula.⁶ It has been advocated as a technique of general education.⁷ Sociology and social work, particularly the latter, have used the case study extensively.⁸ The case method comes naturally to social workers since the case record is one of their primary tools. It has probably been their influence which has taken the case method into the teaching of the guidance field as well.⁹ Medical therapy far outdates social ther-

⁴ *An Introduction to Administrative Law* (2nd Edition, New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1950). This current edition contains a good discussion of the case technique and uses it effectively.

⁵ *Cases on Administrative Law* (St. Paul, Minn.: West Publishing Co.), Frank J. Goodnow's works on administrative law were of course much earlier, but these did not utilize the case method.

⁶ For a general discussion see D. H. Sperle, *The Case Method Technique in Professional Education* (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1933).

⁷ A. W. Nolan, *The Case Method* (Bloomington, Ind.: Public School Publishing Co., 1927); W. C. Olson, "General Methods: Case Study," *National Society for Study of Education—Thirty Seventh Yearbook*, 1938, Part II, p. 329; R. E. Elder and H. L. Jones, "Let's Get Down to Cases," *Social Education*, April, 1948, p. 160; W. B. Donham, "Why Experiment? Case System in College Teaching of Social Science," *Journal of General Education*, January, 1949, p. 145.

⁸ C. R. Shaw, "Case Method Study," *American Sociological Society*, 1926, p. 8; W. W. Pettit, *Case Studies in Community Organization* (New York: Century Co., 1928); D. Daly, *Case Work Practice in Public Assistance Administration* (Chicago: American Public Welfare Association, 1942); P. B. Foreman, "The Theory of Case Studies," *Social Forces*, May, 1948, p. 409.

⁹ J. M. Brewer, et al, *Case Studies in Educational and Vocational Guidance* (New York: Ginn and Co., 1926); J. M. Brewer, et al, *Cases in the Administration of Guidance* (New York: McGraw-Hill Co., 1929); R. D. Allen, *Case Conference Problems in Group Guidance* (New York: Inor Publishing Co., 1934).

¹ C. E. Fraser, *The Case Method of Instruction* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1931), p. 11. *Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences*, III, p. 252.

² R. E. Ireton, "Case System: A Criticism," *U.S. Law Review* 64:635, Dec. 1930. Compare J. Redlich, *The Common Law and the Case Method in American University Law Schools* (New York: Carnegie Foundation Bulletin, #8, 1914), p. 9.

³ See *Selected Cases*, (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1950). *Harvard Problem Books* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., various years). Dan T. Smith, "Education for Administration," *Harvard Business Review*, Spring, 1945, p. 360. M. F. Dunstan, "Case Method and Learning to Think," *Business Education World*, May, 1946, p. 477.

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apy. The medical case history must certainly be one of the earliest case forms. Psychiatry as a branch of medicine has made good use of the case method of instruction. More recently, the clinical psychologist and the public health administration field of study have joined in.¹⁰

It is interesting to note that in all these subject areas, what is involved is professional education, that is, the teaching of practitioners, persons who not only have to *know* but also have to be able to *do*. Thus, the doctor of medicine and the psychiatrist use the case history as a basis for diagnosis and for judging the success of the treatment. The social case worker's case history is much the same. And the attorney-at-law was deeply concerned with court reports and judicial decisions long before these became the almost exclusive device of his professional preparation. The exception is business administration. Perhaps this explains why every college of commerce in the country is not as fortunate as Harvard in the wholesale adoption of the case technique. If cases are not naturally a part of the profession the student is preparing himself for, cases become much more difficult to procure as a medium of instruction. More on this point later; it has a bearing on the use of cases in the public personnel field.

The Form of the Case Report

THE CASE method, then, will vary in form depending on the field of its application. The case may be a chronological narrative of events surrounding the person or problem at issue. This is called a "case history." Or it may be a presentation of the facts, findings, and possible alternates, the decision made, and the reasons for the decision. This is called a "case report." The difference can be illustrated by comparing a court case and a social work case. The latter is primarily a history. The "working pa-

pers" of the social case worker include a chronology of the actual handling of a person or a family, the social history of the client, the pertinent incidents, all covered by a face sheet containing certain standard information for ready reference. Medical and psychological case histories are similar to case work. The legal case is quite different. It is an "organized" report of the facts, the decision, and the reasons for the decision.

In essence, however, cases are similar and basically, the case method is the same. It involves the study of actual occurrences within the profession in the past in preparation for the solution of similar problems in the future. The basic ingredient is the decision. The fact that the case record may be historical in form merely means that a series of decisions are involved instead of one. The function of the case report is to lay the basis for a decision of some kind—whether it be diagnosis, therapy, imprisonment, or award of damages. The actual writing may be in history form or in "report" form, but the decision is the focus.

While in pursuit of differences, it may be pointed out that the decision in the case may be personal or impersonal in effect. That is, it may involve an individual or it may involve an issue. The former is specific and concrete, a question of what is to be done with, to, or for a human being in a particular situation. The latter is general and abstract, a question of policy. Quite naturally, the nature of the facts and other data necessary to make these decisions will differ and cause a difference in the type of case report. We shall wish to refer to this difference later in our discussion; it has particular importance to personnel administration.

Decisions also vary in form according to the level at which they are made. For example, the employee *decides* to appeal his case after his supervisor has *decided* to refuse the employee's request; the superior may intervene with a *decision* to overrule the supervisor or he may call in a staff analyst to investigate the case thoroughly and *decide* what to recommend to the superior as a decision of the case. Generally these decisions increase in degree of for-

¹⁰ H. D. Choep, "The Case Method in Teaching Public Health Administration," *American Journal of Public Health*, June, 1937, p. 605; M. Derryberry, "Public Health Case Methods," *Public Health Reports*, Nov. 17, 1939, p. 2035; P. W. Preu, *Outline of Psychiatric Case Study* (New York: P. B. Hoeber, Inc., 1939); S. S. Marsolf, *Studying the Individual—A Manual in the Case Study for the Guidance Workers and Psycho-Clinicians* (Minneapolis: Burgess Publishing Co., 1940).

mality as they approach the top level. However, few of these decisions are really formalized. In fact, in most jurisdictions, not even the *decisions* of a central personnel tribunal are recorded except perhaps in the form of sketchy minutes. The student needs to be taught and to learn that in actual practice the decisions are made at all levels of the hierarchy, including the lowest, the worker level.¹¹

Cases in Public Administration

Now, where does public personnel administration stand as to the case method? Not very well, is probably the truthful answer. There are neither the cases accumulated nor has the case method been widely adopted as a means of instruction. There is a beginning and, if we are willing to do a little borrowing from other fields such as private personnel management, from human relations studies, and from the academic disciplines already mentioned, there is a good beginning.

The reader probably already knows a good part of the history of cases in public enterprise. The first concerted effort on the part of the persons who have produced the literature of public administration, started in 1937 with the formation of the Special Committee on Research Materials. This was a subcommittee of the Committee on Public Administration which the Social Science Research Council had set up some years before.¹² This Special Committee laid down the policy, prescribed the format, and solicited interested scholars and practitioners for cases. And the cases were forthcoming, although not without considerable difficulty. Beginning in 1940, and continuing over a span of several years, one hundred and twenty cases were published in loose-leaf form. These were collected into three volumes.¹³

¹¹ See Paul Appleby, *Policy and Administration* (Tuscaloosa: U. Alabama Press, 1949), for a discussion of this continuum in administration.

¹² The need for cases and for case study in public administration had been anticipated some years before. See John W. Gaus, *A Study of Research in Public Administration* (New York: Social Science Research Council, 1930).

¹³ *Case Reports in Public Administration* (Chicago: Public Administration Service, 1940, 1941, 1944).

The Special Committee made no effort to collect cases in any given field. There were included in the Case Reports collection, however, quite a number of personnel cases. The exact number will vary according to one's definition of the subject. The writer has used thirty or more at various times for instructional purposes. And in the absence of other materials, these cases do serve such purposes.

However, the Special Committee made it quite clear it did not have an instructional use primarily in mind for its cases. Its interest, rather, was in research.¹⁴ The premise on which the Special Committee based its program, namely, that there is an analogy in public administration with the test tube technique of the laboratory, was a false one, in this writer's opinion. Dr. Mosher stated this premise very persuasively however in his description of the work of the Special Committee when he sent out his appeal for help in gathering cases.¹⁵

The need for cases was clear. Whether everyone was in favor of the special approach of the Special Committee or not, there was unanimous support of its activity,¹⁶ and considerable joy with its fruitfulness.

Research versus Instruction

LEST the reader think this matter is entirely an academic tempest in a teapot, let it be considered for a moment. It is no doubt significant that when the second major effort came along to produce cases in public administration the cases, clearly and avowedly designed for study and instruction rather than for research, were quite different. Consider length alone. Few of the Case Reports are more than three or four pages long. All of the cases produced

¹⁴ See page iv of the Special Committee's Introduction to the *Case Reports*.

¹⁵ W. E. Mosher, "Case Studies in Public Administration," *American Political Science Review*, February, 1939, p. 66.

¹⁶ See Gordon Clapp's review of the first set of cases, "Toward a Science of Administration," *Public Administration Review*, Autumn, 1941, p. 82. For some other definitions of the need see John M. Pfiffner, *Research Methods of Public Administration* (New York: Ronald Press, 1940), pp. 93-95, p. 374; Edwin O. Stene, "An Approach to a Science of Administration," *American Political Science Review*, Dec. 1940, p. 1131.

by the Committee on Public Administration Cases are longer; two are over two hundred pages each.¹⁷ One cannot, in the interest of research, strip cases of descriptive material, personal color, circumstantial information, force all reports into a common mold, and still give the student who uses it for purposes of learning, the vicarious experience he needs and is seeking. Look at it this way. The researcher's object is to make discoveries, to set up new principles: his focus is on the similarities.¹⁸ The student's interest in learning goes beyond the common elements to the particular situation in each case. His interest is or should be directed to the variables. He can learn the principles in the textbook; it is precisely this familiarity with the variations which makes the student's study real, which teaches him how to apply his knowledge.

This need the Committee on Public Administration Cases well recognized. In its case write-ups, it gives general historical background of the issues, personal histories of the individuals in the case, adequate descriptions of the program, required procedures and other situational information. It makes no attempt to highlight principles. Unfortunately for personnelists, few of the Cases now published deal with personnel problems. Two of them tell the story of struggles to obtain special retirement acts and one, the ordeal of firing a regional director.¹⁹ All of the other cases deal with other subjects and are only incidentally of interest to personnel management. However, the Committee has been recently refinanced and no doubt will procure additional cases of more immediate interest to personnel practitioners.

¹⁷ This Committee, directed by the collaboration of four Eastern universities, and financed by foundation grant, is headquartered in Washington, D.C. at 3 Thomas Circle, N.W. To date it has produced in near-print form about two dozen cases.

¹⁸ See the authoritative statement of William Anderson and John Gaus, *Research in Public Administration* (Chicago: Public Administration Service, 1945), pp. 28-54; also Earl G. Latham, "Technique of Administrative Reporting," *Public Administration Review*, Spring, 1943, p. 106.

¹⁹ *The F. B. L. Retirement Bill; The Foreign Service Act of 1946; Mr. Smith and the OPA.*

Case Reports Not Intrinsic to the Practice

OUR TROUBLE in public administration is, as the foregoing paragraphs illustrate, that we do not regularly use in our business anything corresponding to the medical history, the social case work record, court reports, etc. Public administration must prepare its cases in an "artificial" manner, specifically for purposes of instruction.

The most natural kind of a case in public personnel administration is the decision of the civil service commission. But how many jurisdictions record their cases? Jurisdictions, such as the California State Personnel Board, which hire a professional hearings officer to conduct hearings, build up the record, and then refer the whole thing to the Board for its decision, are few and far between.²⁰ This means that the unhappy "case reporter" must reconstruct his case from the individuals who were participants. Many cases appearing in this writer's case book were written in just such manner.²¹ It may be inappropriate to suggest that personnel workers, government agencies, and particularly civil service commissions should keep case records just so they would be available for instructional purposes. Still, the almost complete absence of such practice makes one wonder if enough capturing, recording, reporting, transcribing, and archival work is going on in the personnel field.

Certainly the trend toward concern with the human aspects of the work situation dictates much more concern with case recording. If the social worker feels the need for the kind of voluminous case history he keeps for social welfare beneficiaries, one can certainly raise the question whether the government employee is not entitled to at least as much concern from his supervisors. Do we not need in personnel work to develop vastly the technique of the now-so-brief personnel history folder?²² We need to develop the case his-

²⁰ Incidentally, even a complete record of this sort with full transcripts, attorney's briefs, etc., is often inadequate in terms of personalities and backgrounds for the writing of a really satisfactory case from the instructional standpoint.

²¹ Henry Reining, Jr., *Cases of Public Personnel Administration* (Dubuque, Iowa: William C. Brown Company, 1949).

²² This suggestion is not original. See John M.

tory not only in the employee relations aspects of the supervisor's job but also as an instrument of planned promotions and executive development.

A considerable number of cases from the private personnel field are available in published form. While some of these involve collective bargaining and other labor situations not common to all governmental work situations, there are many just as valuable to the public service as they are to business administration or industrial management.²³ This is particularly true of the cases in supervisory problems.

Education or Training?

THERE is a well established distinction in public administration between education on the one hand and training on the other. Education is said to be done by a school, college, or agency other than the employer; training is done by the employer. Now, is this distinction important in considering the case method? Probably not. The objective on the part of the pre-entry student of public administration is the same as that of the in-service neophyte, namely, to learn the "science" and to be able to practice the art of public administration.

Two other uses for the case have already been referred to: (1) The researcher's—to record data for the purpose of analysis and possible discovery so as to advance the subject matter, and (2) the practitioner's—to make decisions, to record for possible future action, to use as a part of the process of administration. Their use of cases may well be distinctive enough to indicate differences in form. The practitioner's interest in this case is specific; it is worker-centered or issue-centered. The researcher's interest is general; it is subject-centered. The student's interest in cases, however, is

substantially the same, whether the student is still in school or has moved into employment. The differences, if real, are so slight as to be of no consequence. Both the pre-entry student and the post-entry worker want to add to their knowledge, understanding, and experience as rapidly as possible. Both have the view to apply what they learn, apply it in actual practice. Thus, they both wish to learn the law of the situation as well as the law of the principle. In short, the case method is just as applicable to in-service training as to pre-entry education.

This was demonstrated in the success with which the T.W.I. program utilized the case technique for in-service training, particularly the Job Relations Training. This certainly taught the case approach and did it well.²⁴ The cases used, of course, were not supplied by the conference leader, except for the standard one used in the lead-off presentation; each of the supervisor-trainee participants supplied his own.

The case method lends itself within in-service training particularly to supervisory training. It is precisely in the case approach that the supervisor learns to become worker-centered in his attention, to respect the variables, especially the human aspects, and to make decisions which are based on reason as well as on rule. There are facilities now available for such training, at least in private management literature.²⁵

The case method is also an excellent technique for executive development and training. It is difficult to conceive how the high-level arts of administration can be learned except from the experience of others. If the high-level manager is paid to do anything it is to make decisions, to choose among alternatives in a successful manner. By the time the decisions get to

Pfiffner, *Supervision of Personnel: Human Relations in Management* (New York: Prentice Hall, 1951); and Kurt Lewin, *Resolving Social Conflicts* (New York: Harper & Bros., 1945) p. 125.

²³ As samples see: Paul Pigors, et al, *Social Problems in Labor Relations: A Case Book* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1939); Frances and Charles Drake, *A Human Relations Casebook for Executives and Supervisors* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1947); Paul Pigors and C. A. Meyers, *Personnel Administration* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1947), Part II, "Introduction to the Case Method."

²⁴ This story is told in a number of places. See, for example, Mary Anderson et al, *Training Workers and Supervisors for War Production* (New York: American Management Association, 1942), Personnel Series No. 46.

²⁵ *Ibid*: especially section entitled "The Case Method in Supervisory Training;" see also Cloyd Steinmetz, "Recordings Help Foremen Improve Industrial Relations Techniques," *Factory*, February, 1949; *Recorded Dramatized Case Studies* (Milwaukee: Training Services, Inc.).

the top, the latitude possible in the choices is very great, as compared to decisions made further down the line. The variables are at play rather than the constants, so to speak. Unless the new executive is to be entirely at sea, with all this expanse of choice, he needs to know what others have done in analogous situations.

The Role of the Instructor

WHAT is the most effective way to study cases? Self-study has already been alluded to; it is especially useful for in-service training. But in higher education the classroom is prescribed medium. So the instructor inevitably enters into consideration. And so he should. For the old hand, self-study is perhaps adequate. But for the inexperienced worker, not so. He needs the help of an instructor. It is all very well to say that the case method makes for vicarious experience, teaches worker-centered attention, develops the ability of analysis and synthesis, promotes rationality, and enables the students to learn to make decisions and to solve problems. But it certainly does not do so automatically. Primarily, it is the instructor who must see to it that the student actually "lives" the case to the greatest possible extent.

The student may recite the case perfectly so far as the facts, the decision, and the reasons for the decision are concerned, but that can be rote performance. The instructor can bring out all the points in the case by adroit questioning. Certainly the inexperienced student cannot be expected to get everything that is in between the lines of each case.

If the student is to learn to reason and develop critical powers, he must learn to answer such questions as: "What's wrong with the decision?" "What are the implications of this decision in terms of policy?" "What will its effects be so far as other employees are concerned?"

Does the student need to gain vicarious experience? Then ask him to assume the role of the employee in the case; of the supervisor; of the hearings officers; of one of the civil service commissioners. Use cases which do not have decisions given, and demand that the student be the judge. Per-

haps even dramatize a critical incident or incidents by allotting roles and having the students re-enact the scene with the class as the critics.

Ask the student what makes this case different from the others in the casebook which involve the same subject matter. Change one of the basic facts and ask what difference it would make if the worker had been a woman instead of a man, a C.I.O. union member instead of unaffiliated, a white man instead of a Negro, recently divorced instead of happily married, 150 I.Q. instead of 80.

Ask what made the administrator act as he did in the case. Was it anger, professional predisposition, habit, *modus operandi*, fear of his own job, something else? Ask what might have been the decision had there been peace at the time instead of war, depression instead of a boom, an election year impending, budget time in process, and so on.

Certainly, the instructor must at all times be a conference leader. He must provoke discussion, argumentation, and debate in the group studying the cases. The teacher of cases must be chairman and provocateur, not lecturer. He asks the questions; he points up the problems; he doesn't know all the answers.

The Limitations of the Case Method

THIS discussion so far may have given the reader the impression that the case method is perfect. It is not; it has a number of limitations, some intrinsic, others not intrinsic but apt to attach to the case technique nonetheless. In the first place, one need only look to the law court to see one danger of the case method, namely, an overuse of the rule of precedent, *stare decisis*. This is the practice of regarding each case as a precedent for all succeeding cases and is a rule well established in our law. Now there is an almost irresistible tendency, it seems, toward *stare decisis* in our system of thinking generally, although the rules of administrative law, as distinguished from the law court, favor the deductive or principles approach. This means that each case will be decided by reference back to the basic

premise instead of by the model of any specific case decided previously.

Does this appear as a distinction without a difference? Not so. There is a vast difference between building up general policy out of the decisions of a number of cases and simply asking for a given decision in the case of B because of what was decided in the case of A. And the other way round too. There is a significant difference between settling a specific case in terms of general policy and settling it in terms of another and preceding specific case. The law courts, by reason of the doctrine of separation of powers and their nonpossession of the power to legislate have been more or less forced into *stare decisis*. Administrative tribunals, including civil service commissions, fortunately do not have this problem since they possess legislative and rule making as well as judicial powers. One device which instructors have found helpful is to fictionalize the names of persons, jurisdictions, and places in the case reports. The very fact that the case cannot be specifically cited as a true precedent, militates against *stare decisis*.

What is normality, administratively speaking? Here lies another danger of the case approach. Quite naturally, the public employee who does his work efficiently and stays out of trouble, stays out of case-books. It is the troublesome employee who makes cases. Therefore, a danger of the case method is that the student—like his counterpart in medicine or in psychiatry—will see only the pathological examples, and forget the normal.

The trouble here is the same as in newspaper publicity. A murder, suicide, or divorce action is more apt to make headlines than is law-abiding and normal conduct. Again, it falls upon the instructor to caution the case student constantly against assuming that all government employees are alcoholics, because the case-book has seven cases involving alcoholism; are inefficient, because there are twelve cases involving rejection during probation or dismissal afterward for inefficiency; and so on.

This poses a problem for the case reporter as well. He must include cases of success as well as of failure: a training program that met the problem, as well as cases

illustrating the omnipresent, un-met need for training; a well-conducted wage survey as well as clashes over inequitable pay increases. Incidentally, this approach accomplishes something else too. It leads to the inclusion of "issue" cases as well as "person" cases.

The case method is a costly one as to time required for study. Which is another way of saying that the case student is apt to get only a narrow and partial view of the spectrum of personnel problems by means of the case approach. Even if there were enough cases to round out the picture completely, the average student would not have the chance to read and digest them all.

Basically, there is no solution to this dilemma of length versus number of cases. Intensive study of a few long cases is desirable in order to give the student the opportunity to develop understanding. Extensive study of a lot of cases is desirable to gain diversity. Practically, the wise instructor will probably use some of both.

What's the answer? One remedy is to add to and round out our cases, so at least a minimum number can be covered in each subject area. Another is to use other types of materials in the teaching too. Certainly there is no excuse on a college campus not to require the reading of Mosher, Kingsley and Stahl or the City Managers' manual on municipal personnel administration, as well as the cases. The text may never be discussed as such—although the writer of this article thinks it should be, certainly for the first few weeks of each class—but it is still there as a reference from which the student may obtain historical background of personnel events, definition of unfamiliar terms, etc. For the in-service student, the organization chart, rule book, procedures manual, and other source documents serve much the same purpose as the text-book on the campus.

The use of cases certainly need not be preclusive in the teaching and studying of public personnel administration, but in view of the fact that this has happened in the law school and in other professional preparation, perhaps this going overboard on cases should be pointed out as a hazard. The case method should not be car-

ried so far that the student loses, or fails to gain the habit of using the library and of reading for himself. Also the case study is no substitute for actual practice, by internship or work-study arrangement for the university student, and by rotating work assignments and central supervision for the post-entry neophyte. Fortunately, in the field of public administration there is no immediate danger. Instead, the present problem is greater utilization of the case method.

Bias and prejudice, intentional and unintentional, are another hazard of case studies of the type we have now. Many of the case reports in public administration, for example, were written by the participants themselves. And despite noble efforts at modesty, many of them turned out with such a Little Jack Horner air to them as to bring a smile to the reader's lips. Students of such cases almost invariably ask: "Doesn't anyone in these cases ever make a mistake, and admit it?"

Contrariwise, when observers write up case reports, especially after the fact, ignorance is inevitable because of the lack of orderly procedures, the scarcity of well-kept records, the shortness of human memory, etc. Also case reporters, being human, sometimes have prejudices. The reporter who does not like the decision in a given case usually writes it up differently from the one who does agree, for example.

Finally, the prime difficulty with the case method in public personnel administration is getting enough well-prepared, authentic cases of the right sort to afford the student the broad sample he needs. Here all this writer can do is to repeat the exhortations for more recording and capturing of case materials. Add then a large enough corps of case reporters, and the problem can be met. An effort must be made to get cases which will serve the dis-

tinctive needs of instructional use, as distinguished from research use.

There is need for both kinds. Case studies for research purposes are a well-established and highly respected technique. In fact it is hard to imagine how certain types of social research could be done other than by means of the case method.²⁰

The critical step is taken in the case reporting. The great need in the case report for instructional purposes is circumstantial, historical, and personal detail without too much effort on the part of the reporter to predetermine the case by selecting this and eliminating that material on the basis of irrelevancy. This is probably not the kind of case the researcher needs, in most instances.

It should be pointed out, further, that the third use of cases, for record and other operation purposes, which has been merely alluded to in this article, needs serious attention in terms of its distinctive requirements.

Conclusion

IN SUMMARY then, what we need for public personnel administration is a greater utilization of the case approach, the publication of more cases so as to close the circle of the subject, more regard for the distinctive requirements of the case reports which are to be used for instructional purposes, especially fuller descriptions of the setting and the people involved, and an avoidance of including only pathology. We need to be aware of the limitations of the method and to avoid the hazards involved in using it. We must appreciate the role of the instructor in the studying of cases. But most of all, we need to use the case method much more than we have.

²⁰ As examples, Wm. Healy, *Contributions of Case Studies to Sociology* (Chicago: American Sociological Society Publications, 1943); C. V. Good, *et al*, *The Methodology of Education Research* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1941), pp. 205-38.

Social Differences Between "Successful" and "Unsuccessful"

State Highway Patrolmen . . . ARTHUR C. CROSS and KENNETH R. HAMMOND

THE PURPOSE of this study¹ was to determine whether or not there were differences between "successful" and "unsuccessful" Colorado State Highway Patrolmen with regard to sociological background factors such as marital status, veteran status, former types of jobs, and others. If statistically significant differences could be found between "successful" and "unsuccessful" patrolmen with regard to these sociological variables, this information would be of value when screening applications for the job of patrolman.

Type of Data Used for Study

THE SOURCE of data was the Highway Patrol's file in which information such as height, weight, age, marital status, number of dependents, former jobs, highest salary previously attained, hobbies, and education attained was recorded. A thorough investigation of all the items on the personnel data cards was carried out to determine which of the items would be useful and relevant. Many interesting and relevant items were abandoned because of lack of data and incomparability (for various reasons) of the data. Those categories which were finally included were: veteran status, marital status, education (in years), hobbies, and former types of jobs (as classified by the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles*).

Men who were presently employed by

the State Highway Patrol at the time of the study (March, 1950) and had been so employed for at least one year were defined as "successful." The men termed "unsuccessful" were those who at the time of the study had either resigned or been dismissed from the patrol within the past three years.

No significant differences were found between the two groups with regard to degree of education attained, hobbies listed, such former occupations as managerial, semi-skilled, or unskilled, age, height, and weight. The chances for differences to occur between the groups in the categories of education, age, height, and weight were lessened considerably by the patrol regulations with regard to minimum and maximum age, height, and weight, and minimum education requirements.

Significant Categories for "Successful" Patrolmen

HOWEVER, significantly more "successful" than "unsuccessful" patrolmen fell into the categories of: (1) married with no dependents other than wife ($P < .09$); (2) single ($P < .08$); (3) formerly agricultural occupations ($P < .01$); (4) formerly in skilled occupations ($P < .05$); and (5) formerly in protective service occupations ($P < .01$). (See Table I.)

Interviews with the Patrol Personnel Officer, as well as with other ranking Patrol Officers, combined with further investigations of personnel records, led to the following hypotheses about the reasons for the above results.

The significant differences obtained in connection with marital status bore out the *a priori* hypothesis held by experienced patrolmen that single men, and married men with no dependents other than a wife, would be "successful" for financial reasons.

¹ Part of a personality assessment program carried out by the Colorado Institute for Research in Human Relations. This research was made possible by a grant from the Council on Research and Creative Work of the University of Colorado.

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TABLE I
Factors Contributing to Success or Failure as Highway Patrolman*

	No. in Successful Group	No. in Failure Group	Proportion of Total Group	Standard Error of Difference	Critical Ratio
<i>Success Factors</i>					
1. Married, only one dependent	23	14	.308	.084	1.79
2. Single	12	5	.142	.0647	1.83
3. Agricultural and allied occupations	19	6	.208	.074	2.92
4. Skilled occupations ...	17	8	.208	.074	2.02
5. Protective and service occupations	10	1	.092	.053	2.85
<i>Failure Factors</i>					
1. Former commissioned officer	3	13	.133	.062	2.68
2. Married, with 2 or more dependents	20	31	.425	.0929	1.99
3. Divorced	3	10	.108	.057	2.05
4. Clerical and sales occupations	17	29	.383	.094	2.25

* Numbers do not total to 60 since the categories are not exhaustive. Only those categories which approached statistical significance are indicated.

Further investigation verified this conjecture, for it was discovered that several patrolmen had been forced to resign because they could not meet extra financial burdens engendered by having to support a family.

With regard to occupations, the obtained differences were surmised to result from the fact that men who had been employed in agriculture and its allied occupations would be likely to "succeed" as patrolmen because they developed the necessary "boredom tolerance" by working long and solitary hours. Perhaps an element in the skilled worker's background which contributed to his "success" on the patrol was his experience in making independent judgments which involved considerable responsibility for equipment as well as products. Interview material led to the conclusion that men who had been engaged in protective service occupations would be good patrolmen because of their experience in police work and their acquaintance with the duties of a highway patrolman.

Significant Categories for "Unsuccessful" Patrolmen

THOSE categories into which predominately more "unsuccessful" than "successful" patrolmen fell were: (1) former commissioned officers ($P < .01$); (2) married with dependents other than wife ($P < .05$); (3) divorced ($P < .05$); and (4) clerical and sales occupations ($P < .05$). (See Table I.)

Former commissioned officers, it appeared, had a tendency to "fail" as patrolmen because they found it difficult to adjust to the "noncommissioned" status of a patrolman, and because they were accustomed to having more money on which to live. A large portion of the former commissioned officers were dismissed for failure to obey orders and respect discipline. The lack of "success" of the married with more than one dependent has been discussed above.

Psychological factors, as yet undetermined, are probably responsible for more divorced men being "unsuccessful." Men who had engaged in clerical and sales oc-

occupations may not have "succeeded" on the patrol because they found it difficult to adjust to the discipline required. Further, men who formerly were in such occupations as saleswork where they were in frequent contact with other people, might well find it difficult to adjust to the relatively solitary life of a highway patrolman.

Summary

THE PROBLEM was to determine whether or not there were sociological differences between "successful" and "unsuccessful" patrolmen. The results indicated that, other things being equal, a man who was either single, or married with only a wife as a

dependent, who had been employed in agricultural, skilled, or protective occupations or any combination of these occupations, would be a good patrolman. The results also indicated that a man who had been a commissioned officer in the Armed Forces, who was either married with more than one dependent or divorced, or who had been employed in clerical and sales occupations, even though he met the physical, mental, and moral requirements of the patrol, would be a poor risk as a patrolman.

Interviews and further examination of personnel records led to suggestions as to the reasons for the results obtained.

PERSONNEL OPINIONS

• What is the thinking of experienced personnel people on everyday problems of personnel policy and practice? Their views can often provide readers of *Public Personnel Review* with cues to sound, constructive policy-making.

The editors have posed the same question to each of several persons and have asked them to comment on the various points it raises. Here's what they say.

The Question

What do you think private personnel people can profitably learn from public personnel practice?

The Replies

PAUL CAMP, Director, Civilian Personnel Division, Bureau of Supplies and Accounts, Department of the Navy.

In attempting a reply to this question in the limited space available, I can only hope to touch upon a few of the concepts which I would like to discuss. For this reason also consideration of these concepts will be on a very general basis.

The first concept in which I think private personnel practice can profit from public personnel administration is that of its definition as a staff function. In too many private industries, personnel work is concerned with merely routine record keeping. The concept of maintaining a stable, efficient force is either underestimated or so spread out among various executives as to have no central coordination. For this reason, various practices, such as promotion systems, qualification standards, satisfactory employee-employee and employee-supervisor relations are relatively neglected. Evidences of this are found in comparative separation rates which for March, 1951, for example, are twice as high for private industry as for government. Another indication is the lack of clear-cut standards of qualifications for various jobs. New employees often find no defined pattern for advancement. In many industries, too, employees find it impossible to transfer from one type of work to another, even after improving their potential by extra-curricular training.

While I don't mean to infer that public

personnel people have attained the ideal in personnel administration, it does seem there are more clear-cut definitions of objectives and policies in government personnel operations. Similarly, they are better communicated to present and potential employees. The Classification Act, for example, does provide public personnel people with position standards which can be readily made known to all employees. In addition, it also provides for some orderly progress in promotion.

While I cannot claim that political factors have been entirely eliminated from the government service, freedom from this interference is much greater than in private industry. Public personnel practice places much more responsibility on supervisory personnel for selection and hiring than does private industry.

It seems to me that public personnel administration has developed a "mobility" that private industry could well profit by. It is true that the shifting of workers from one area or agency to another to avoid seasonal changes is much easier in the government than in private industry where the cooperation of independent organizations is required. However, it is not impracticable to suppose that much more could be done along this line by private industry.

Public personnel people seem to have struck a fairly happy medium in terms of the problem of "seniority" versus "quality." Part of the answer for this is in the promotional pattern inherent in the classification of positions and the opportunities for promotion. This makes more real the recognition of merit. The result is that when firings must be accomplished, with seniority as a factor and demotion as an alternative, the better qualified people are relatively better protected and less likely to be completely separated.

The increasing emphasis on budgetary justification of personnel staffing has increased the reality under which the public personnel people must operate. The result, however, has not been a reduction in the concept of the staff function of personnel administration, but rather a trimming down of "frills," emphasis on obtaining better qualified personnel, and a re-evaluation of the entire public personnel program.

LOUIS J. KROEGER, Louis J. Kroeger and Associates, Personnel and Management Consultation and Services.

The question implies a wider difference in

interest and in method than actually exists between all of public personnel practice and all of private personnel practice. We should probably all be more concerned with "What can the poorer personnel practitioners learn from the better?"

If we could only get personnel people—and a lot of other people, too—to realize that there is much to be learned by looking around, by being receptive to new ideas and by being ruthless in self-analysis and self-criticism, it would not make a great deal of difference where the lessons originated.

The editor's letter asking for comment on this question said that its purpose was to break down the feeling held by those in both private and public personnel work that the problems and goals of the two groups are different.

In many ways they are different. We should not oversimplify the problem by assuming that because we all do personnel work, whether in public or private service, we have entirely the same problems and the same goals. Personnel management in industry, for example, has to assist in the negotiation and administration of formal labor-management agreements. The public personnel administrator may deal with the same labor organizations, but he is not under the same set of rules with respect to negotiation. Instead, he administers a set of laws which are complicated by political as well as practical considerations.

Many private personnel managers work in organizations which spend millions of dollars for institutional and product advertising, which helps make their organization attractive to potential employees. The public personnel administrator still struggles with the unfortunate and unfounded assumption of many people that public service is an undesirable fate.

Finally, despite all we say and write about the goals and ideals of public personnel administration, there are still far too many jurisdictions enforcing laws and administering procedures rather than choosing and utilizing intelligently the talents of human beings.

All of this has been said to discourage oversimplification of the problem. It is still true, however, that there are problems and goals very much alike for those who work on industry's payroll and those who serve the public. All share the problem of hiring the best available talent, training that talent better to do the job, evaluating its performance, providing harmonious working conditions, protecting the individual against whimsical and discriminatory treatment and eliminating the unfit.

In my opinion there are two big lessons

which private enterprise can learn from public service in this field.

The first is that personnel management is a single function of management; not two functions. Industry has tended to separate what it calls "industrial relations" from what it calls "personnel management." Under the name of "industrial relations," it has negotiators (too frequently attorneys) whose function is to hammer out the best possible deal in the periodic negotiations with labor unions and to carry on the formal adjustments required from time to time during the life of a contract.

Then, apparently on the assumption that those who fight the annual battle of the contract will have strained relations to the point where they cannot participate in day-to-day personnel relations, a separate group takes up the task of "personnel management"—selection, training, evaluation and administering the other aspects of day-to-day human relations.

I have long regarded this as a two-faced attitude on the part of private management. I have heard too many industrial relations directors shout that "there are not two sides in any labor dispute; there is only one side—and that's our side." I have seen too many expensive programs of personnel management initiated and then nullified and frustrated by strained attitudes and difficult relationships created by this manner of dealing with employees.

The public service long ago learned that working with organized employees to propose the terms and conditions of their employment for enactment in laws and regulations is best done by the same agency for personnel management which administers tests and classification and pay plans and service rating systems. Until private management has learned that it must express a single attitude toward the employee, and in all of its relations with him treat him as an individual with whom it must come into complete understanding, it will have failed to gain an advantage enjoyed by public administration.

The other big lesson, in my opinion, is that there are real advantages in perfecting formal classification and pay plans, formal tests, and formal evaluation plans. However, a word of caution should be given to those in private enterprise, that when they look to public personnel administration to learn some of the superior techniques which have been developed in some agencies in these fields, they should not at the same time take from the public service the often prevailing attitude that these important tools of personnel management are virtually ends in themselves. They are the means to very important ends. The fact that the public per-

sonnel administrator is often blind to the real end does not diminish the fact that he has excelled in perfecting the means. If private personnel managers can take advantage of these improved means and at the same time learn by contrast with much public practice how to use those means, then private personnel management will have gained a great deal.

ROBERT C. SAMPSON, Office of the Vice President-Personnel, The Chesapeake & Ohio Railway Company.

My answers to this question must be viewed in the light of three qualifications. First, in both industry and government we can find places where there are good and bad personnel practices. Hence, we must try to avoid generalizations when characterizing public personnel practices (good) with private personnel practices (bad). I have long since concluded that both industry and government personnel people have much to learn about the same basic problems. In both settings there is the urgent necessity of developing insights and skills in what we already know about human relations.

My second qualification in answering this question is that I shall not consider the so-called personnel functions or techniques. While it is true that those governmental units which pioneered the merit principle did pioneer techniques such as job evaluation, written examinations, and merit ratings, it is also true that many industrial organizations, because they do not have the same ground rules as government, have had more freedom to experiment and to do the unusual.

The third qualification is this: My thinking is confined to those governmental jurisdictions which have good merit systems. Lest there be some implication of perfection in this qualification, we must realize that there never has been a governmental unit that has had 100 per cent merit or 100 per cent spoils.

With these qualifications in mind let us look at three "principles" in public personnel administration which I feel private personnel people might think through critically, particularly in so far as they have long-term implications for better industrial human relations. The first principle is open handling of personnel affairs. Governmental jurisdictions are under constant scrutiny by governing bodies, by better government groups and by the newspapers. No personnel man in government can, over

the long pull, say "this is my business." His work is everybody's business. He cannot afford to be capricious or secretive. While oftentimes criticism is not constructive; nonetheless, he must be ready and able to face it. Industry might profit by realizing some of the advantages of having personnel practices as thoroughly aired within a company as they are in government.

The second principle might be termed "equality." Perhaps because of the nature of things, there is much less management versus employees in government. In part, this may stem from the fact that in government all people are employees and in part from the fact that over the so-called government managers there is a governing body. The government rules generally apply in the same way to all persons covered by a merit system, and there is less chance for the development of "have and have not feelings." For example, annual leave, sick leave, expense accounts, and retirement allowances are computed on the same basis for the manager and the employee. Special differentiations do not exist. Industrial personnel people should examine the equality principle critically. Although there may be real justification for differing amounts of leave for managers and rank and file employees, what does this special treatment do to the attitude of the rank and file employees? Does this not strengthen their "have not" feelings?

Third, is the merit system principle. A comprehensive public merit system in a private industrial organization is not feasible. Yet, the *merit idea* of no favorites and no nepotism does provide employees with a sense of security and fairness. As an example, under public competitive examinations a person knows where he stands.

Although many private companies generally champion the merit idea, do its employees have the same sense of security and fairness? Judging from the way unions have pushed seniority protective measures, one might conclude that the merit principle has something to offer to industry.

Actually, these three principles are nothing more than minute aspects in establishing a good general human relations atmosphere for an organization. Personnel people both in government and in industry are now faced with the greatest of all challenges. How can we make our mark in assisting and advising in the improving of human relations in the work place?



THE BOOKSHELF



PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION IN PUBLIC HEALTH NURSING. William Brody, C. B. Mosby Company, St. Louis, 1951. 209 pp. \$3.25.

Anyone concerned with public personnel administration and, of course, particularly those connected with the field of public health nursing, will want Mr. Brody's book as a useful addition to his or her library. Public personnel administrators will find this book to be an excellent summarization of current procedure, while public health nursing supervisors and directors will welcome it as a handy reference to the many techniques and procedures used in the field of public personnel management. Don't look for a "two pound volume." You will find, however, a concise, interesting, and well annotated guide to present-day practices in public personnel management.

The author, who is director of Personnel for the New York City Health Department, is apparently well aware that a publication of this type for the busy Chief Public Health Nurse must be economical of words, simple and direct in language, and replete with examples. The book accomplishes this goal. It is written in such a manner as to attract reader interest. For example, chapter headings titled "Help Wanted," "How Am I Doing," and "The Facts of Life," cover recruitment procedures, methods for evaluating performance, and attendance and leave.

In addition to discussing standard forms and procedures, specific examples of application forms, performance ratings, and even a sample set of short-answer items in a typical public health nurse examination is included in the book. Considerable ingenuity is shown in discussing some of the public personnel terms less frequently used such as "validity" and "reliability." To explain these terms, for example, the author writes "if you had a scientific curiosity and plenty of pennies, you might step on and off a scale a hundred times (to weigh yourself) and find that your weight has been reported as 110 every time. You would consider this scale *reliable*. But its validity is another question—you might actually weigh 115 pounds."

The eleven chapters in this book discuss career service in general, merit systems throughout the United States, and follows the public health nurse from the time she is brought in the organization until she is separated. A very

excellent group of questions for self-appraisal of a personnel program which may be used by any public personnel office is listed in the appendix.

The beginning chapter is introduced with a general discussion of career service, and since most public health nurses are employed in governmental agencies, a discussion in general of the operation of civil service and merit systems is given. The author frequently reminds the reader, however, that the techniques discussed are as applicable to private or "voluntary" agencies as they are to governmental service. The elements of position classification are discussed in the next chapter. With a simple example of a cafe owner who has two employees, a dishwasher and a waiter, the author shows that small as well as large organizations and private as well as public departments need a position classification plan.

Chapter Three deals with recruitment. Particular stress is placed on "personalized" recruiting as being the most successful type for this class of worker. A number of interesting comments are made on the application form pointing out the need for simplifying this form by eliminating useless items such as questions concerning race, religion, or birth place of parents. The requirement of personal references is likewise questioned as serving "no really useful purpose; since anyone can list three to five friends who will vouch for him."

Examination techniques are discussed in Chapter Four and include central personnel agency procedures for ranking applicants in order of their probable success on the job. The importance of utilizing fully the probationary period in separating incompetent personnel is of course emphasized. The chapter on performance ratings links emphatically the responsibility of the supervisor for preparing the evaluation and the techniques observed in grading individuals with the success of this entire phase of personnel management.

The essential character of continuing staff developments after employment is covered in a chapter titled "Learning All the Time." Information on pay ranges and pay administration is given in the chapter "The Facts of Life." Leave policies generally observed by employers of public health nurses are summarized, including the rather novel plan of a "Combination Allowance." This plan provides for an all-inclusive leave with pay allowance instead of

specific allowances for vacation, sick, and other leaves with pay.

Chapter Eight reviews the various changes in personnel status which occur during the employment of a public health nurse including promotion, demotion, and transfer. Utilization of a promotion chart is encouraged in implementing the merit principles.

The significance of appropriate action when problems of discipline arise as it relates to morale is discussed. The establishment and observance of a grievance procedure is of course encouraged, and a recommendation is made for employee representation on grievance committees. A strong recommendation that written personnel policies be established is made and a guide listing the significant aspects of the policies is given. Retirement systems in general use are discussed in one of the last chapters of the book. A suggested method for computing a turnover rate is also given.

Professional personnel administrators will not find complete discussions on technical phases of personnel management covered in this book. However, they will find a condensation of personnel practices governing a group of 25,000 professional workers employed by approximately 7,000 agencies and an excellent bibliography where exhaustive treatment of the subjects referred to may be found.

In concluding, the author emphasizes the fact that ultimately the responsibility for effective personnel practices resides in the Chief Administrator. A guide is also given as to the various functions which a staff personnel officer might very well perform in obtaining optimum personnel efficiency and economy.—ROBERT G. BEAUMIER, *Department of Health, State of Washington*.

THE LABOR PROBLEM IN THE PUBLIC SERVICE.

Morton Robert Godine, Harvard University Press, Cambridge, 1951. 305 pp. \$5.

Here is a book that cannot be read speedily, not because it is difficult reading, for it is not, but by reason of the sparks of thought it strikes off in the reader's mind as he tries to go along. It is a provocative volume, but never in the irritating way so often attending sweeping generalizations.

The book may be divided into three parts. The first portion, comprising the first three chapters, is largely a theoretical presentation of the dilemmas posed by transferring collective bargaining from the private to the public scene. The second part, consisting of the next seven chapters and being the bulk of the book, is largely descriptive of governmental unions and governmental employers, and how they

have evolved vis-à-vis each other. Finally, the last chapter presents the author's proposals for collective dealings in public employment.

In his theoretical framework, Godine accepts "... the idea of sovereignty as the ultimate and final source of legal authority within a state. . . ." He asserts that "an authoritarian bureaucracy is . . . an unfit instrument to achieve broad democratic objectives. . . ." He also assumes that "Government employees in the main are essentially wage earners with substantially the same economic interests as employees in private industry."

In his opinion, it is necessary to reject, as a working basis for employee relations, the authoritarian theory of the state employer. If one does not, collective employee relations simply cannot exist. He finds the theory unrealistic, because it assumes that a public employee can have no loyalty except to his sovereign employer, while actually the employee has pluralistic loyalties. He considers the authoritarian determination of the conditions of employment to be hostile to the American climate of "democratic consultative procedures."

Godine equally rejects the syndicalist theory of the state employer in which "the statutory determination of employment conditions would accordingly be replaced by a collective work agreement similar to those in private industry." To accept the syndicalist theory would be to repudiate the idea of sovereignty and to accept the right to strike against the sovereign employer—in short, to legalize disobedience of the law.

Between the two extremes there must be a solution. It is not, explains the author, to be found in Sterling Spero's attempt "to distinguish vital from ordinary functions of government," with the purpose of grading on a scale the amount of control of the conditions of labor that can be extended to labor organizations. Godine rejects the scheme on the basis that government is a "distinctive totality" which cannot be arrived at by simply summing up a series of "discrete and unrelated activities." Government has an "essential purposive unity."

Godine offers a new theory which he calls "the constitutional theory" of the state employer. The authority of the state is supreme. But the state need not exercise its authority continuously. The state may allow its staff to participate in making decisions, dealing with the administrators, under broad policies laid down in statutes. If "established procedures fail to function satisfactorily," the state (meaning the legislature) may then "impose a solution of its own making." Necessary to the pro-

gram is the establishment of machinery for employee consultation.

Not only will the new theory reconcile the conflict between sovereignty and employee participation, but it will also have several practical advantages. Operating efficiency will be enhanced. There will be administrative democracy. Government employees will be raised from the condition of second-class political citizenship in which they now exist. The strike will become a superfluous weapon.

The author makes three errors, in the opinion of this reviewer. He displays the position of the worker in a socialist state and then reasons that the position of the governmental worker in a nonsocialist state would be the same. On the face of it, this is faulty logic.

He proceeds upon the unstated assumption that bilateral determination of the conditions of employment is a partial abdication by the sovereign employer of his sovereign powers. This is probably the commonest error made in the field of public employer-public employee relations. A collective bargaining contract is the substitution of *group bilateral* dealings for *individual bilateral* dealings. There is no such thing as unilateral determination of the conditions of employment. No applicant is ever forced to take a specific job. The unilateral employment relationship disappeared when slavery was outlawed.

The third error is one of naivete. Will employee organizations cease to badger legislators when by law the day-to-day determination of the conditions of employment is turned over to the administrative authorities? Will lobbying cease when the personnel department is delegated responsibility in employee relations? Will the political parties refrain from patronage politics when public employees are permitted more active participation in the political process? Will a government union remain unhappily silent, albeit discontented, when it has not gotten the bargain it wanted from the administrators—or will it start to work on the legislature to override the administrative decision? The successful government union has a keen sense for smelling where power lies and getting as near that important scent as possible.

It will be gathered that Godine has made his most stimulating contribution in his theoretical chapters rather than in the historical section, where the record has been written before. He has not come up with the grand, new reconciliation of the vexatious yet fascinating paradoxes and conflicts in the field of organized employee relationships in the public service, but he has helped greatly to clarify the thinking in this field. It is a pity that he has had to abandon

his pursuit of knowledge in public personnel relations for an executive career in private business.—ROLLIN B. POSEY, *Northwestern University*.

BOOK NOTES

THE MUNICIPAL YEARBOOK, 1951. The International City Managers' Association. 1313 East 60th Street, Chicago 37, Illinois, 1951. \$10.00.

The 18th edition of The Municipal Yearbook, sometimes referred to as "The Almanac of Municipal Administration," is just off the press. The regular data on municipal pay rates, hours of work, police, fire, traffic, revenues, expenditures, etc., has been brought up to date. Figures cover the 2,319 U.S. cities with populations of 5,000 or more. New features of the 1951 issue include 1950 census figures, population trends, annexations, consolidations, regional planning and sections on centralized purchasing, building inspection, and housing.

SELECTED REFERENCES ON TEST CONSTRUCTION, MENTAL TEST THEORY, AND STATISTICS, 1929-1949. H. W. Goheen and S. Kavruck, U. S. Civil Service Commission. U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., 1950. 209 pp. \$1.50.

The material presented in this bibliography has been in use for some time in the Test Department Section of the U. S. Civil Service Commission. It existed in the form of a collection of filed items kept up to date by a continual process of deletion and insertion. It is being published in permanent form primarily for the convenience of employees in regional offices, members of committees and boards of examiners. The material will also be of value to other public merit-system jurisdictions and private organizations engaged in research and test construction.

The listings are made under 14 sections (e.g. Test Construction Theory, Problems Relative to Test Construction of Specific Types, Validity and Prediction Efficiency) and there are also two indexes—an author index and a subject-matter index. A supplement is planned for issuance at periodic intervals to include new research.

COUNSELING IN PERSONNEL WORK, 1945-1949. Paul S. Burnham and Stuart H. Palmer. Public Administration Service, 1313 East 60th Street, Chicago 37, Illinois, 1951. 39 pp. \$1.00.

An annotated bibliography on the principles and methods of interviewing and special types

of counseling such as counseling of employees, students, veterans, and those in need of employment rehabilitation help.

COUNSELING AND PSYCHOLOGY. Milton L. Blum and Benjamin Balinsky. Prentice-Hall, 70 Fifth Avenue, New York, N. Y., 1951. 586 pp. \$6.65.

The primary objective of *Counseling and Psychology* is to present the authors' views on the contributions of psychology to the body of knowledge known as vocational counseling. Vocational counseling, the authors believe, has reached the stage where it is accepted as a neces-

sity for helping people be most productive in adult years through the attainment of adequate adjustment. Personnel people will find much of the material directly useful. Chapters 4 and 5 deal with the interview, the most important technique in counseling. Three interviewing techniques are discussed and evaluated: the authoritarian, the nondirective, and the non-authoritarian. Chapter 5 discusses the general principles for conducting an interview. Chapter 15 of the book attempts to demonstrate the relation of occupational information to vocational psychology—the integration of job information with information about the individual.

Memo to Miss ()

YOU NAME HER

*Mark my calendar and get my reservation.
I'm going to be in Detroit at the Hotel Statler
October 8-11 for the CSA Annual Conference on
Public Personnel Administration.*

Current Literature

Articles of Interest in the
Public Personnel Field

Personnel Administration

PAYNE, BRUCE, "Evaluating the Personnel Department." *Personnel Journal*, February, 1951.—Now, when labor shortages are appearing, it is all the more important to make sure the Personnel Department is operating smoothly. The work of this department can be evaluated by taking advantage of those mathematical indicators which do exist and by rating Personnel's services to other departments. Among the measurable factors are these: (1) *Labor turnover*. A rising trend line, while not an indictment of the Personnel Department alone, does indicate a need for investigation. (2) *Absenteeism*. If the rate is rising, or though steady, is higher than other plants in the area, it's time for the Personnel Department to get busy. (3) *Accidents*. The plant accident record is an indirect measure of Personnel's performance. (4) *Grievances*. A chart of the number of grievances is another indirect measure of Personnel performance. (5) *Use of recreation facilities*.

A great many phases of Personnel's job cannot be measured mathematically and charted. But they can be rated. Personnel is a service department. It is possible to evaluate Personnel's performance by answering questions like these: (1) Are line departments getting the right worker at the right time? (2) Are new workers adequately trained? (3) Do new workers adjust rapidly? (4) Do workers have a chance to advance themselves? (5) Is job evaluation adequate? (6) Do employee records provide other departments with all the information they need? (7) Is adequate medical care provided? (8) Are careful studies made of "new" personnel ideas and reports made to top management to guide its decisions? (9) Does the personnel department review industry-wide and area wage and salary levels regularly and report to management on its findings? (10) *Special Services*. The personnel department should know and be able to teach: (a) the conference technique; (b) preparation of training and technical manuals; (c) development of "case" material; and (e) factors governing selection of individuals for promotion, advanced training, etc. It's not easy to say how much Personnel work should cost, and it's obvious that the best and most useful Personnel Department may not have the lowest operating cost by any means. One recent study showed that the ratio of employees in the Per-

sonnel Department to the total working force ranges from three to twenty individuals per thousand. The average appears to be close to ten. The Personnel Department can more than pay its way through services to every other plant department. An audit will help you find out how your Personnel Department can be of even greater service.—L. J. Van Mol.

DICKINSON, HAROLD, "Semantics: Its Application to Personnel Administration." *Personnel Administration*, January, 1951.—Frequently language is a barrier rather than a help to effective communication. The aim of this article is (1) to acquaint the reader with some of the basic concepts of semantics, (2) to suggest lines of possible observation and case study by pointing out some of the ways in which these principles are commonly abused in personnel administration, and (3) to suggest some of the possible means by which semantic faults in personnel administration can be reduced or eliminated. The basic concepts of semantics are: words are not the things they represent but abstractions; words do not represent *all* of the object, what people may say *about* a person does not necessarily correspond to what he is; the meaning of words is not in the words—it is in us; language and abstraction are self-reflexive, we use language for talking about language. In position classification, it is important that we be conscious that we are abstracting or leaving out characteristics, every time we describe and evaluate a job. The more general and abstract the field of work, the more likely we are to determine the grade on a play of words. In placement, too, often the words on the application form are taken as the measure of the man. A person who presents his experience modestly may find himself farther down on the register from an unassembled examination than one who presents his experience in impressive language and thus achieves a grade having little relation to his capabilities for performing a specific job. In setting goals for employee performance, a major semantic difficulty is the two-valued orientation—the tendency to divide everything into opposites, to make sharp distinctions between "success" and "failure." The simple fact is "there is no failure in nature. Failure is a matter of evaluation. Failure is the felt difference between what you expect and what you get." In training, we have the failure to recognize differences in backgrounds and experience. Training peo-

ple may also be guilty of using directive rather than informative language, that is, of telling us how something should work instead of telling us how it actually does work. It does not take into account the facts of the actual working situation. In the language of published personnel laws, policies, regulations and directions, we climb too high on the verbal ladder and fail to relate the language we use to objects and situations in our experience. We do not relate abstract principles to the real personnel situation.

The conclusions reached are that we can try to bring personnel administration as close as possible to the actual work situation; that we can be constantly aware that words are merely labels and abstractions, that they are not the things they stand for and hence cannot describe all the characteristics of a job, an applicant, or a work situation; we can keep in mind at all times the importance of individual differences in peoples' backgrounds, experience, training, and personalities; we can make the meaning of words extensional (denoting a specific object in the material world) by specific examples that fit the experience of the persons we are addressing; we can develop habits of better understanding, more effective communication, and more accurate thinking by studying and applying the principles and techniques of semantics.

Mr. Dickinson includes an excellent bibliography of material in addition to the usual Hayakawa and Alfred Korzybski books, "Language in Action" and "Science and Sanity."
—Helen Esray Chase.

Personnel Management

HOCKMEYER, I. O., "The Assessment of Personal Qualities." *Public Administration*, Winter, 1950.—In a large organization, selection for promotion or for training courses presents special problems because of the numbers involved and the difficulty of maintaining uniform standards of assessment. A current method assesses men under headings such as "excellent," "fair," "poor," without guidance as to what justifies an award under any particular heading nor any lead as to the proportions that should fall under each head to give a reasonable distribution. An analysis of assessments of this type was made which justified the devising of a new system based on the best modern practice and incorporating the general principles used for officers in the Armed Services and in the Civil Service. In an experiment under the proposed system, over 1700 men were assessed under three attributes—trade proficiency,

character, and supervisory ability. Each assessment was based on the appraisal of three constituents. For example, supervisory ability was based on leadership, organizing ability, and sense of responsibility with the assessors awarding from one to five points to each man for each constituent. Each assessor was provided with guidance in the form of a descriptive definition associated with each score. Addition of the points awarded under each constituent gave the score for each man a range from 3 to 15 for each of his three attributes. To assist in using these figures in selection for promotion, a "Suitability for Promotion" formula was devised which characterized as fit for promotion those who scored 10 or above on trade proficiency and 20 or above on character plus supervisory ability. Scores below 6 on trade proficiency or below 8 on either character or supervisory ability indicated an individual unfit for promotion. Intermediate scores meant not yet fit for promotion. (Article contains an appendix with a guidance for scoring, and charts and tables analyzing ratings on over 1700 men.)—Robert Hacken.

Employee Relations

BAVELLAS, ALEX, and BARRETT, DERMOT, "An Experimental Approach to Organizational Communication." *Personnel*, March, 1951.—The findings suggest that an experimental approach to certain aspects of organizational communication is possible and that, in all probability, it would be practically rewarding.

Probabilities of success are increased, however, only by taking relevant and appropriate actions. For the manager, these actions reduce in most instances to the gathering and evaluating of information in the form of reports, schedules, estimates, etc. In these terms, the effectiveness of an organization with respect to the achievement of its goals is closely related to its effectiveness in handling information. The managers depend completely upon the quality, the amount, and the rate at which relevant information reaches them. The rest of the organization, in turn, depends upon the efficiency with which the managers can deal with this information and reach conclusions, decisions, etc. This shows that communication is not a "helper" of the other and presumably more basic functions. Rather, it is the basic process out of which all other functions derive. The goals an organization selects, the methods it applies, the effectiveness with which it improves its own procedures—all of these hinge upon the quality and availability of the information in the system.

The qualitative terms used in this report in place of quantitative measurements, which were actually made, blurs the comparison somewhat, but it gives a fair picture of the way these patterns performed. In all three types studied, individuals can share ideas completely and any pair of individuals can exchange messages either directly or indirectly with each other but only over the same route.

In type one, the route is shown as a circle with any one person sending and receiving messages only to the person next to him. Here, as far as communication is concerned, the speed is slow; accuracy poor; organization without stable form; and no emergence of a leader; but morale is very good. The route for type two is a disconnected circle. This could be shown by having the individuals in a vertical line but still with any one person sending and receiving messages only to the person next to him in line. Here communication speed is fast; the accuracy good; the organization is slowly emerging but stable; the emergence of a leader is marked; while morale is poor. Type three has a definite leader who has sole two-way communication with each person around him. The persons do not have direct communication with each other. Here speed is fast; accuracy good; the organization is almost immediate and stable; the emergence of a leader is very pronounced; but morale is very poor.

A word of caution should be given concerning type 1. Subsequent experiments indicate that this pattern possesses unusual abilities for adaptation to sudden and confusing changes of task—a quality lacking in the other two patterns.—Max S. Lindemann.

HENEMAN, HERBERT G., JR., "Suggestion Systems—Symptoms of Failure?" *Personnel Journal*, March, 1951.—On the one hand, suggestion systems represent a desirable attempt to solicit and encourage employee participation in attaining the aims of the organization—in fact, to contribute improvements. On the other hand, they may be viewed as an admission of failure on the part of management to properly plan such improvements. The greater the volume of usable suggestions, the greater the failure of management in its planning function. Suggestion systems can help a great deal in solving immediate, short-run human relations problems. But, in general they cannot contribute much toward basic understanding. Some of the money now being spent on suggestion systems could be spent much more profitably on personnel and human relations research. There is little real understanding of what constitutes good personnel relations, poli-

cies, and practices. Suggestion systems may offer a valuable stop-gap medium of correcting mistakes in our current programs, but they must be accompanied by intensive research if positive preventive action is to be taken to avoid mistakes and gaps in the personnel program. The quality of human relations we have may well determine the survival of our democratic, free-enterprise system. Without a great expansion of personnel research, the prospects for attainment of that goal may be remote.—Augusta Fink.

Placement; Service Standards; Evaluation

PLANTY, EARL G., and EPPERSON, CARLOS E., "Counseling Executives After Merit Rating or Evaluation." *Personnel*, March, 1951.—The scientific approach in evaluating, counseling, and developing men has been delayed because of its complexity and the specialized psychological terminology used in scientific discussion of the subject. Because of this, executives responsible for evaluation, counseling, and the development of other management members have tended to avoid a planned approach and have let chance take its course. There are now a few principles and techniques of *counseling for improvement* which can be expressed in practical terms and which makes counseling after evaluation a profitable investment for executives. There are four assumptions upon which the success of these techniques depend: (1) we must proceed as though it is unlikely that a subordinate will evaluate himself and his work as his superior does; (2) we must counsel regularly for it is unlikely that the superior's evaluation matches the subordinates'; (3) the purpose of counseling is more one of development than of discipline; and (4) most people can, if properly assisted, change their attitudes and behavior for the good.

Performance counseling, in addition to letting the subordinate know where he stands, helps by providing encouragement and assistance while improvement is taking place. The scientific objective approach toward improving executive performance seems simple and practical and includes only three steps: (1) setting performance standards; (2) rating, measuring, judging how close an executive comes to the standards; and (3) counseling with the subordinate regarding the findings of step two. In many cases the first two steps are undertaken and completed, but the third is not. What successful development can there be until both superior and subordinate recognize specifically the subordinate's strength and weaknesses and cooperatively lay plans for

growth and improvements? (Article includes an outline of practical suggestions for counseling divided into the main headings of: introduction, purposes of counseling, preparing for the interview, manner for the interview, the interview—including specific suggestions for handling various reactions to the counseling—, and evaluation and followup.)—*James E. Mountain.*

TAYLOR, ERWIN K., and WHERRY, ROBERT J., "A Study of Leniency in Two Rating Systems." *Personnel Psychology*, Spring, 1951.—Research workers have often contended that existing employee evaluations were too biased to be useful as criteria for test validation and that consequently special ratings had to be collected for this purpose. The research conducted in connection with the Army Officer Efficiency Report provided the data on which a comparison of experimental and real or official ratings could be made. Forced-choice and graphic ratings were obtained in both the experimental and real situations. Results show that with graphic ratings the average is much higher in the real than in the experimental situation. There is also considerably poorer discrimination at the top of the scale for the real ratings. In shifting from the experimental to the real situation, there was an increase in the mean score on both forms. This increase was much more extensive for the graphic than for the forced-choice form. In addition, the slope of the distribution for forced-choice scores changed only slightly with the shift from experimental to real conditions. The distribution of graphic scores, however, was much steeper at the high extreme, making discrimination in that area much cruder in the real than in the experimental situation. Whatever the factors that operate to alter the distribution of ratings, they appear to affect forced-choice forms much less than they do graphic. While the forced-choice cannot be said to have solved the problems of leniency and bias, a step in that direction appears to have been taken. More research in the development of the forced-choice technique is needed before a final evaluation of it may be made. (Article contains tables and figures showing relative frequency distributions of graphic rating scores and of forced-choice scores under experimental and real conditions.)—*Kenneth H. Otten.*

HOUSTON, HARRY, "The Dumont Employee Profile." *Personnel Journal*, March, 1951.—The Dumont Employee Profile is a plotted inventory of education, experience, abilities, skills, work record, and personal attributes.

It includes all the data from the screening interview, application form, and pre-hiring testing plus merit rating scores. The Profile, developed at the Dumont Laboratories, grew out of the need for screening job applicants since the company follows the policy of promoting from within.

Rapid growth of the firm during and after World War II made the realization of this policy difficult. The first step was the development of a "patterned interview" type of application blank, followed by a merit rating procedure. I.Q. tests, supervisory training conferences, and personality tests were added. The tests were validated on volunteer employees whose abilities were known. First results were excellent but the firm was suddenly plagued with excessive turn-over. Written inquiries revealed that many were worried about their ability to attain the standards set by the company in view of the short period of training given. The Training Department was then asked to develop a new training program, designed to eliminate this worry and to give the employees a feeling of security. Results have been excellent. An employee is advised how he may round out his profile to prepare him for promotion in the operation for which he seems most suited. He is advised of the courses of study he should take and where they are available. The company provides many, given without cost and on the employee's own time. Information on each employee profile is key-punched on I.B.M. cards and when a vacancy occurs the statistical analyzer is adjusted to sort for the profile of the job in question.—*John W. Jackson.*

MASSARIK, FRED, WESCHLER, IRVING, R., and TANNENBAUM, ROBERT, "Evaluating Efficiency Rating Systems through Experiment." *Personnel Administration*, January, 1951.—The federal Performance Rating Act of 1950 which went into effect January 1, 1951, represented an effort to deal with "the considerable discount with which the Civil Service Rating System has been viewed in many quarters for some time." The act provided for a new set of rating principles adopted with little *a priori* assurance that the new rating approach would prove more satisfactory than the old. Unless systematic preliminary evaluation precedes the implementation of a new system, corrections and modifications become difficult to introduce. Evaluating an instrument should include an investigation of the internal characteristics of the system in operation and measurements of its values in achieving the intended purposes of the rating system. An in-

vestigation was conducted which purported to throw light upon the stability of efficiency ratings under a series of systematically varied conditions. The major findings included: (1) the new experimental conditions which facilitated a more private expression of opinion resulted in lower ratings than those given under the former conditions; (2) a slightly higher proportion of sub-professional than professionals were given lower ratings when the results were kept private; and (3) the new experimental "form" generally exerted some influence upon the ratings, but this influence was considerably smaller than the effect by the new experimental "conditions." Research investigating the "why" of shifts in ratings as brought out by experimental methods may give rise to valuable insights. Such follow-up research may well use the open-end type interview to explore the dynamics operating when the supervisor performed the ratings under various conditions. Experimental techniques should be able to find broader application in the evaluation of efficiency rating systems.—*Rufus C. Browning.*

Classification; Pay

MCGILVER, FRANCIS E., "An Objective for Position Classification." *Personnel Administration*, January, 1951.—The present operation of position classification in the federal government is intolerable to classifiers, employees, and management. It is fundamentally true that it matters little who actually classifies positions. What is important is that positions (and not impressive descriptions) be classified, and that they be classified accurately and consistently across organizational lines. If line management wants to classify positions, if that would be more in keeping with management principles, and if that would free the classifier from his present uncomfortable position—then line management should classify them. The objective of the position classifier should be to make it possible. Suggested premises from which to evolve a radically different kind of classification program are: (1) The responsibility for classification judgments should be clearly assigned to line management, and conversely, the classification specialist should be relieved of any direct responsibility for them. (2) The present position description, which is essentially aimed at impressing or confusing the classifier, should be replaced by a "work-assignment" sheet; that is, the document to be classified should be the property of the employee and supervisor, developed to be useful for them in the work situation, and should serve only secondarily as a basis for classifica-

tion. (3) There should be developed standards, evaluation methods, and tools which are sufficiently clear, specific, and informative that they can be used by the nonspecialist with reasonable training and assistance. (4) The functions of the classifier should be to instruct, advise, and assist line management in evaluating positions, in keeping classifications current, in discharging its responsibility for position classifications; to review classification decisions made at operating levels, either on individual case or survey basis, for the purpose of recommending changes and improvements; to serve as a reference point in resolving cases which cross organizational lines, or cases for which standards are inadequate, etc.; to produce classification standards, keep them current, improve methods and tools; represent the organization in dealing with higher levels of technical authority within and outside the agency.—*Carroll R. Boling.*

Recruitment

WOLFF, W. M. and NORTH, A. J., "Selection of Municipal Firemen." *Journal of Applied Psychology*, February, 1951.—A preliminary approach to the selection of municipal firemen has been made in the fire department of a Texas municipality which has a population of about 500,000. From a total of 351 fire privates, a group of 144 was selected who had complete records for a revised test battery administered by the city Civil Service Commission. The criterion for the analysis was the ranking of the subjects on their ability as firemen by the captains who best knew the individual's ability. The rankings of these subjects then were selected from the rankings of all privates. This resulted in 17 groups of ranked subjects, varying in number from 4 to 14 men per group. More than half of the men were contained in the 7 largest groups. The results were as follows: (1) The total written examination for the apprentice firemen (measuring general knowledge and elementary fire fighting information) and the Bennett Test of Mechanical Comprehension showed a significant difference between the means of the higher-ranked subjects and the lower-ranked subjects at the 2 per cent level of confidence. (2) The applicant's age and his score on the division of the written examination dealing with his knowledge of inflammables showed a significant difference between the means at the 5 per cent level of confidence. (3) The total written examination yielded a correlation of 0.30 with the private's rankings and correlated 0.60 with the test of mechanical comprehension. These

coefficients are significantly different from zero at the 1 per cent level of confidence. (4) The total written examination gave an estimated test reliability coefficient of 0.79 with a standard error of 0.04. (5) The Kuder scores, the months per voluntary job and the years of city residence are suggested as possibilities for further investigation, although they did not exhibit a high level of statistical confidence in the present study. (Article contains references, including a 1927 German comprehensive study of firemen selection.)—*Arthur V. Wolfe.*

STALNAKER, JOHN M. "Is There a Science of Personnel Selection?" *American Journal of Public Health*, February, 1951.—To the rhetorical question of whether there is a science of personnel selection the answer is yes, with some qualifications. There is a substantial science of personnel selection but there are areas, and important ones, which the science does not adequately cover at the present time. Sound personnel selection is an art based upon as much scientific evidence as we can accumulate. The best selection at this time will be based on a combination of factors, not all of which can lay claim to be scientifically established. In testing, aptitude tests are usually designed to indicate the intrinsic or dispositional fitness for some particular job. We assume that people who have the same characteristics, be they called traits, aptitudes, abilities, or skills, as individuals who are successful in a particular field will be most apt to succeed in that particular field. The problem is to discover which of these characteristics are significant for success and to devise measures for such character-

istics which are precise, dependable and, if possible, quickly and cheaply obtainable. Intelligence tests, tests of scholastic aptitude, and tests of achievement in many areas have had considerable if not outstanding success. Aptitude testing on a group basis was developed in the first world war and with success in the second world war. The role of testing in the selection of men for specialized work in the armed forces is almost universally recognized and used. The use of tests as a means of selecting students for professional schools is being very carefully considered. Taking into consideration the expense of medical school training, the need for medical personnel due to the expansion of the armed forces, and the increased attention of the public to medical care, there is constant need to produce more doctors. One effective means of producing more doctors is to improve the selection in order to reduce the attrition rate. Improved selection should also result in improved quality of medical school graduates. Medical school students are usually selected by a combination of the following various factors: (1) academic record in college, (2) evaluation of personal biographical items, (3) a score of the medical college admission test or comparable examination, which is becoming more widely recognized and utilized, (4) an interview, (5) letters of recommendation, and (6) a physical examination. The various phases of medical service are varied and distinctive and various types of persons and personalities are needed. Aptitude for medicine is difficult to define, difficult to establish, and difficult to measure; however, progress in selection is being made.—*Verlyn L. Fletcher.*

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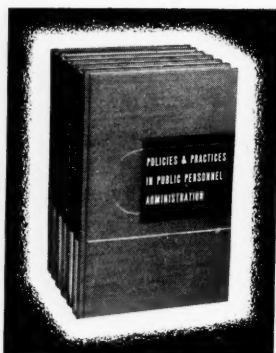
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